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Editorially speaking . . .

¶We owe an apology to those subscribers to the *Review* whose April copies reached them with beaten-up-looking covers. The cause, our printer discovered too late, was a lack of "affinity" between the paper and that particular batch of green ink. Affinity, it appears, is an intangible something which, when it is shared by ink and paper, causes them to cleave to one another for evermore. But when affinity flies out the window . . . well, look what happened last April! (P. S. In the blue July ink, we have been assured, that intangible something has been added.)

¶Does personnel administration today suffer from too much specialization? In their thoughtful article, **The Role of the Generalist in Personnel Management**, Messrs. Warner and Zook describe an experiment with a type of personnel organization designed specifically to avoid the weaknesses of specialization. Their philosophy of personnel management will be of interest to administrators and technicians alike.

¶Many hard-pressed personnel agencies dismiss the idea of carrying on test analysis in the belief that it is too time-consuming and expensive.

This need not be true, however, if the agency follows the suggested methods outlined by D. D. Feder in **An Approach to Test Analysis for Public Personnel Agencies**.

¶Unique as a government corporation, the Port of New York Authority is also unique in the nature and scope of its personnel program. The story of this organization and its personnel policies is interestingly told in **Personnel Administration in the Port of New York Authority**, by Edgar B. Young.

¶Constructing pay scales that will reflect sound personnel policy requires more than rule-of-thumb craftsmanship. In **The Structure of a Pay Scale**, Ismar Baruch discusses some important principles that can make a pay scale serve as a positive instrument for building and maintaining good employee morale.

¶The eleven months that have elapsed since V-J Day have seen many personnel agencies adjusting their policies and methods back to peacetime conditions. In making this adjustment, says Louis Kroeger, we have a rare opportunity to achieve lasting gains in the public personnel field by applying the lessons learned

during the war. His **Reconversion or Transformation** is an article that many will want to read twice.

¶One day last Spring, a six-man panel of specialists in public administration sat down to exchange views about the desirable pattern for organizing a personnel program for the United Nations. In doing so, they brought to light a number of problems that are not encountered in any national, state, or local civil service program. **The International Civil Service**, by William C. Rogers, is a report of the group's views.

¶Many years ago, that great civil servant, Benjamin Franklin, sagely observed:

We must not in the course of public life expect immediate approbation and immediate grateful acknowledgment of our services. But let us persevere thro' abuse and even injury. The internal satisfaction of a good conscience is always present, and time will do us justice in the minds of the people, even of those at present the most prejudiced against us.

Conditions have changed greatly since Colonial times, of course. Nowadays we spell it "public."

The Role of the Generalist in Personnel Management . . . KENNETH O. WARNER AND DONOVAN Q. ZOOK

EXCESSIVELY NARROW SPECIALIZATION threatens full success of the federal government's personnel management program. The tendency toward specialization in personnel management has in a sense run away with itself. A high degree of separatism among the various groups of personnel technicians has begun to hamper the over-all effectiveness of the total personnel program. It has become increasingly apparent to many observers that a need exists for more extensive use of generalists to supplement the specialists in the personnel office of any large organization.

To meet this need an unorthodox type of organization was experimented with in the Personnel Office of the Foreign Economic Administration over a two-year period. The "why" and the "how" of that experiment, together with some observations on its outcome, are presented in the following discussion.

While the environment of this experiment was that of a federal department, the authors do not feel that the pertinency of the principles here outlined is confined solely to departmental personnel administration in the federal service. It seems reasonable that, with some necessary modifications, a similar organizational pattern and scheme of operation can also be ap-

plied in a central personnel agency—whether it be federal, state, or local.

Basic Assumptions—The Proper Role of a Personnel Office

THE TYPE of personnel organization advocated in this article rests upon the basic assumption that responsibility for personnel administration must inevitably be vested in operating supervisors throughout the organization. Far too many people labor under the false impression that personnel administration is something that happens in the Personnel Office. Nothing could be farther from the truth. This attitude tends to separate the operating supervisor from his personnel responsibilities; it encourages him to assume that all personnel matters can be entrusted safely to a group of personnel technicians located in some remote part of the organization.

The personnel man does his program a gross disservice when he permits the operating supervisor to rely passively on him for actual performance of the personnel management job. The proper role of the Personnel Office is not so much to perform the various tasks of personnel administration as to help the operating supervisor perform them for himself. The Personnel Office thus serves as a catalyst stimulating the operating man to recognize and fulfill his personnel responsibilities. It is up to the Personnel Office to develop a favorable climate of policies, practices, and standards, in which the operating line supervisors can become, in effect, their own personnel managers.

There are at least five criteria which can be suggested for measuring how well any type of personnel organization meets the objectives for which it was designed:

1. Each operating supervisor should be kept constantly aware of his responsibilities for personnel administration.

KENNETH O. WARNER is Executive Assistant to the United States Commissioner of Education. He was formerly Assistant Administrator of the Foreign Economic Administration, and prior to that was Chief of the Personnel Operations Branch, Office of Price Administration.

DONOVAN Q. ZOOK, who formerly served as Chief of the Classification Division, Foreign Economic Administration, is now Chief of the Organization Planning Section, Office of the Chief of Staff, United States War Department.

2. Each operating supervisor should be able to fulfill those responsibilities in a satisfactory manner, with the help of his Personnel Office.

3. Personnel problems should be treated as unified wholes, rather than in isolated segments, with a heavier emphasis on human relationships than on paper processes.

4. The Personnel Office should maintain high technical standards in its work.

5. The staff of the Personnel Office itself should have an opportunity to develop personally on the job.

To sharpen the issues raised by our thesis that over-specialization should be replaced by wider use of generalists, we propose to explore two basically different methods of organizing the personnel process. Through deliberate over-simplification we will attempt to compare the potential effectiveness of the traditional type of organization and the one we support, using the criteria cited above as points of reference.

Traditional Personnel Organization

IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE, one generally accepted form of personnel organization includes a Director of Personnel who exercises his functions through the following subordinate units: Training Division, Employment or Placement Division, Classification Division, Employee Relations Division, and a central Transactions and Records staff for paper-work activities. What does this type of organization mean to the operating supervisor who relies upon the Personnel Office to help him get his job done?

Let us assume in a hypothetical instance that an operating supervisor has decided his program requires an additional staff member. The supervisor either knows, or soon learns, that he may not obtain his additional employee until a position has been "set up." He finds that the process of "setting up positions" has been entrusted to the Classification Division of the Personnel Office. To do business with that division he carefully prepares a statement of work to be performed in the new position

and proceeds to explain his ideas orally to the classification technician who comes to see him from the Personnel Office.

Since the supervisor realizes that the position cannot be properly evaluated unless the classification analyst has a rather complete familiarity with the work to be performed, he is generally willing to spend a certain amount of time acquainting the classifier with the over-all program assigned to that part of the organization, as well as with the proposed duties and responsibilities of the specific position. On the basis of this information the classification analyst proceeds to classify the position.

The services of the Employment Division then come into play in finding a suitable person to perform the work of the proposed position. The employment or placement technician can do a satisfactory job of screening applications and recommending qualified applicants only if he has been properly briefed on the work to be performed, so that he can have some standard against which to measure the qualifications of prospective employees. To achieve this it frequently becomes necessary for the operating supervisor to report to this second representative of the Personnel Office practically the same information which he had previously given to the classification man. On the basis of this information a selection is eventually made and the appointee's name is properly inscribed on the rolls of the agency.

Assuming that a suitable individual has been found to carry on the work of the position, it may still be necessary for a certain amount of training to be done in order to help him make the transition from his previous work to his new tasks. This, too, is a problem on which the operating supervisor can get assistance from his Personnel Office, utilizing the services of an entirely separate corps of specialists. To get these new specialists properly oriented to his training needs, the supervisor proceeds to acquaint them with the over-all program of his unit and with the particular type of assignments for which the new employee is to be trained.

Following our new employee still further, we may learn that there eventually develops some sort of personal maladjustment between him and his co-workers or between him and his job. As the supervisor becomes aware of this, he recognizes that he can probably obtain competent assistance in handling this problem from the Personnel Office. So he duly proceeds to acquaint himself with the staff of the Employee Relations Division, where a trained group of expert counselors stand ready to help unsnarl any knotty employee-relations problems.

AFTER THIS RECITAL the moral of our story seems too obvious to be drawn. We can easily understand the feeling of dismay which frequently overwhelms the supervisor as he regards the task of maintaining contacts with the various segments of the Personnel Office. But let us see what implications this method of organization has for the staff of the Personnel Office itself. Unavoidably the Personnel Office tends to see personnel problems as fragments. Except in the person of the Personnel Director himself, or his assistant, where can the scattered fragments of a personnel problem be satisfactorily brought together for over-all treatment? The various groups of technical specialists become so completely engrossed in examining small fractions of personnel problems that they frequently fail to see the whole. As a result, there is often a complex of internal stresses within the Personnel Office, which must be resolved by the Personnel Director.

In addition, this type of organization tends to narrow sharply the individual development of the personnel technician himself. The promising young novice in the field enters the Personnel Office in a junior capacity and finds himself almost immediately earmarked for one of the specialized fields. After he masters the beginner's store of knowledge and understanding of that field he finds himself progressively advanced to higher and higher levels within the same field. During all this time he is vaguely aware that the higher he climbs any one of the specialized ladders, the higher soar the restrictive walls which

prevent his learning about or participating in the other fields of personnel which may attract him.

As we apply our five criteria we observe that the traditional type of organization leaves much to be desired in at least four specific areas: (1) It often fails to develop a close enough relationship between the Personnel Office staff and the operating supervisors to get them to recognize and accept their personnel responsibilities; (2) It dissipates the operating supervisors' contacts with the Personnel Office to such an extent that they often fail to get the continuing over-all personnel advice they need to cope adequately with their personnel problems; (3) It fractionalizes the approach of the Personnel Office staff to its work and prevents the proper treatment of whole personnel problems; and (4) The staff members of the Personnel Office tend to become more and more narrowly rutted in a single restricted field of specialization.

The single sense in which this type of organization is superior is that it develops a higher standard of technical performance among the specialized personnel technicians. This one advantage, however, does not seem to weigh the scales sufficiently in favor of this type of organization when all of the concomitant disadvantages are considered.

"Generalist" Type of Personnel Organization: The Personnel Representative Approach

AS A DISTINCT CONTRAST to the orthodox type of organization, let us explore the relative advantages and disadvantages of the opposite extreme—a personnel organization based on the use of generalists rather than specialists.

For a hypothetical organizational setting, let us assume that the Personnel Office consists of a Personnel Director with a number of subordinate personnel generalists, each assigned the full responsibility for all types of personnel activities in one or more organizational subdivisions totalling from 300 to 500 employees. Each of the generalists serves as a combined classification analyst, placement officer, training specialist, and employee relations

counselor for the organizational area assigned to him.

Under such a system the personnel generalist, whom we shall call the "Personnel Representative" hereafter, serves as the sole point of contact between the operating supervisor and the Personnel Office. The relationship might be stated even more accurately by saying that in the eyes of the operating supervisor the Personnel Representative is the Personnel Office, since he personifies to the operating supervisor everything which the Personnel Office has to offer him.

If we were to outline the step-by-step processes involved in each of the personnel functions, we could easily see that this type of organization greatly simplifies the problem of relationships. It brings to an irreducible minimum the number of contacts which the operating supervisor needs to maintain with his Personnel Office. The Personnel Representative embodies in one person the activities of the four or more personnel specialists with whom the operating supervisor had to deal previously. He furnishes the operating supervisor the constantly available services of a personnel consultant who is familiar with his program and who can tackle his personnel problems in a unified fashion, rather than trying to cope with them one specialized aspect at a time.

By referring again to our set of five governing criteria for measuring the effectiveness of a personnel organization, it is easy to see just how the pros and cons are aligned under this type of extreme personnel generalist system. It can reasonably be assumed that this system makes the operating supervisor more aware of his personnel responsibilities. This is true because the Personnel Representative by his very proximity to the operating supervisor is better able to get over to him a sense of those obligations than would a group of specialists who have only occasional contacts with any single operating man. Because the Personnel Representative concentrates his attentions on a relatively small segment of the organization, he can deal much more intimately with the operating supervisors

within his part of the organization. Continuing personal relationships with the Personnel Representative make the operating supervisor a great deal more "personnel conscious" than when his contacts with the Personnel Office are sporadic.

The operating man is likewise in a better position to fulfill his personnel responsibilities under this system, since he constantly receives the counsel of one personnel technician who has intimate familiarity with the personnel problems in that part of the agency. Not only does this help the supervisor to see and understand his personnel problems; it also helps him to do something constructive about them.

If the operating supervisor must depend upon a scattered group of specialized personnel technicians whom he meets only when a personnel problem reaches the "crisis" stage, his instruction will likely be confined to those individual crises. It will not encompass broader matters of personnel management.

The point to keep in mind here is that the Personnel Representatives should not attempt to do the personnel job for the operating supervisor. Their goal should be to help him do it for himself.

IF WE CONCEDE that personnel management is the process of developing people so that the total job of the organization may be accomplished most effectively, then we must renounce the notion that personnel management in public agencies should confine itself to the administration of a series of restrictive laws and regulations applying to specialized fragments of the total personnel job. The use of personnel generalists offers one way to achieve the desired accent on the "people" part of personnel management, whereas the use of specialists may in its worst aspects degenerate into a system that places more importance on the manipulation of documents than on the development of people.

One further major advantage of this generalist system lies in the breadth of activities which the Personnel Representative covers. In this respect the generalist

system far outdistances any specialized type of organization, since the Personnel Representative finds himself dealing constantly with every type of personnel activity that arises within his assigned part of the organization.

Evaluation—Disadvantages

ALONG WITH these cardinal benefits, however, there appear to be three distinct disadvantages of this extreme type of generalized organization. First, the danger always exists that the Personnel Representatives will end up with nothing but a superficial familiarity with any of the specialized personnel functions. Some contend that the Personnel Representative system carries this as an inherent disadvantage, since spreading the attention and activities of any one individual over such a broad area of personnel techniques may result in a very thin veneer of coverage in each of the specialized fields. With such a "smattering of ignorance" the personnel technician may find himself having only a nodding acquaintance with all of the personnel functions, while at the same time suffering from a deplorable lack of mastery of any one of them.

Another drawback of this extreme sort of generalist organization is that it provides no focal point for central functional leadership within the Personnel Office in any of the specialized fields. As a result the Personnel Director has no single point to which he may turn for advice or staff assistance on "across the board" technical aspects of classification, placement, training, or employee relations. Likewise, the Personnel Representatives themselves are forced to operate with inadequate guidance on the technical phases of their work.

A third limitation is the close relationship developed between the Personnel Representative and the operating officials with whom he deals. It may seem strange to regard this as a "drawback" of the system. However, in our experience this objection was frequently voiced by dissenters from our view. They believe the close identification of the Personnel Representatives with the operating officials tends to

rob the Personnel Representative of some of his professional objectivity. By becoming so engrossed in the personality implications of individual cases, the argument runs, the Personnel Representative may lose some of his impartial "aloofness" and become a partisan advocate of what his operating people want.

Measures for Overcoming Disadvantages

WE RECOGNIZE the foregoing potential weaknesses in our proposal. We believe, however, they can be overcome, or alleviated satisfactorily through proper organization within the structure of the Personnel Office, as well as through the proper selection and training of the Personnel Representatives. Further elaboration on each of these three points follows.

Organization of Central Functional Divisions. There should be a central group of functional specialists who can give leadership to the Personnel Representatives in such technical fields as classification, employment, training, and employee relations. This central staff should be a small one. It should by no means be permitted to over-shadow the responsibilities of the Personnel Representatives.

Initial Selection of Personnel Representatives. The success or failure of the personnel program hinges more directly upon the caliber of people in the Personnel Office than on any other single factor. Selecting a Personnel Representative offers peculiar difficulties because it involves gauging an individual's potential without being able to rely directly upon capacities demonstrated through previous training and experience. It is hard enough to measure a person's capacities as a classification technician by examining his previous performance in that specific field. In staffing a Personnel Office with generalized Personnel Representatives, however, we are often confronted with the problem of estimating the candidate's capacities as a training or employee relations officer on the basis of his past performance as a placement or classification technician.

All of this adds up to the conclusion that in recruiting for Personnel Representatives it is best to seek individuals whose experience has included either direct participation or close contact with a number of the specialized fields of personnel administration. Admittedly this is a difficult process.

In discussing the problems of selection, however, it is not wise to put too much emphasis upon the minutiae of past experience. To do so is to overlook the all-important essentials of the as yet non-measurable characteristics which affect an individual's possibilities of success as a Personnel Representative. Here we have no other recourse than to fall back on the old generalities which are so full of vital meaning to the prospective employer but so difficult to detect or to evaluate objectively in a written application or an interview—such qualities as maturity (intellectual and emotional; not just chronological), breadth of interests, stability, effectiveness in dealing with people, human warmth and sympathy, objectivity, systematic work habits, general bearing, and a host of other traits.

Occasionally it may be fruitful to look among people without prior experience in the personnel business—highly successful line supervisors who have worked in organizations where good personnel management prevailed and who have "subject matter" knowledge of the field in which the agency operates. The problem is to find an individual who will approach the Personnel Representative job with a better perspective and a more appropriate set of values than many technicians who have been steeped in the rituals of personnel means without a true understanding of the proper ends of personnel management.

Training Personnel Representatives. The job of training Personnel Representatives has two distinct phases. First, there is the immediate task of filling in any gaps in the previous training or experience of the new Personnel Representative. This cannot be left to catch-as-catch-can learning, or expecting the Personnel Representative to absorb haphazardly on the job the

knowledge and skills he did not previously have an opportunity to learn. The exact content of this preliminary training cannot be prescribed in any standardized sense for all incoming Personnel Representatives. Each must have a course of training tailor-made to meet his individual needs. For most persons it would include a carefully planned and executed program of readings, discussion with technical specialists in the central office staffs, and discerning observation of the technical operations of a seasoned Personnel Representative—a sort of apprentice system.

The second phase of the training process involves a continuing program to supplement the shorter intensive instruction given to the new Personnel Representatives. At this stage all known training techniques can be utilized, including frequent, well-planned group meetings. The Personnel Representatives should receive instruction in the specific techniques required for new assignments. At the same time, their horizons should be kept extended broadly enough to include a variety of subjects only indirectly related to their immediate daily problems. In other words, the continuation training should give the Personnel Representatives some of the specific "hows" with regard to their jobs, while at the same time not so engrossing them in the accumulation of "hows" that they ignore the more important "whys."

Relations Between Central Divisions and Personnel Representatives

THERE REMAINS the important task of establishing satisfactory working relationships between the Personnel Representatives and the central functional divisions of the Personnel Office. As Miss Catherine Shanahan, formerly chief of the FEA Placement Division, aptly said: "The relation of the centralized functional divisions to the Personnel Representatives is not unlike the relationship of an eye, ear, nose, and throat specialist to a general practitioner of medicine. Persons who have aches and pains seldom go to a specialist initially. First they go to a good

general practitioner who relieves their aches and pains if he can. If the practitioner discovers something very complicated or unusual he may call in the specialist for consultation. However, the general practitioner does not relinquish his responsibility for the patient's general health."

The foregoing analogy explains the sort of relationship we have in mind. The supervisor or employee with a personnel ailment first goes to the general practitioner—his Personnel Representative. The Personnel Representative may consult with the functional specialist and solicit his advice for the treatment of a particularly difficult case. Or he may occasionally refer the "patient" to the functional specialist for direct treatment if that appears to be desirable. However, if the "patient" visits the specialist first, on his own volition, he will usually be sent back to the general practitioner.

In the Foreign Economic Administration, the decentralized personnel program operated with a straight line of supervision from the Assistant Administrator for Personnel through the three bureau Personnel Officers to the twelve Personnel Representatives. The bureau personnel offices were actually subdivisions of the central FEA Office of Personnel. It was the agency's Assistant Administrator for Personnel, not the respective bureau chiefs, who supervised the bureau personnel offices.

WHETHER OR NOT this represents the best sort of internal organization lies outside the scope of this article. It did work quite effectively in the Foreign Economic Administration. In larger organizations whose bureaus or other subdivisions operate with greater autonomy it might be more logical to have the bureau personnel offices function as integral parts of their respective bureaus, subject to an over-all technical control from the central Personnel Office. Both methods of organization have their staunch advocates. We believe the principles we espouse apply equally to either type of internal organization.

An outline of the relationships which

existed between the central office staff and the Personnel Representatives in the Foreign Economic Administration reveals more clearly the distribution of functions which prevailed.

Classification Activities. The Classification Division had over-all responsibility for the quality of the classification work of the agency. This responsibility, however, was *not* exercised by (1) actually doing the classification job, (2) directly supervising the Personnel Representatives who classified the positions, or (3) reviewing all classification actions either before or after they were approved by the Civil Service Commission. Only in exceptional cases did the Classification Division deal with individual classification actions. Even in those cases, it dealt with them only because they typified broader problems. It was the responsibility of the Personnel Representatives to deal with individual actions.

Instead of actually doing the classification job, the FEA Classification Division devoted its time and efforts to the task of improving the way the classification job was done by the Personnel Representatives, through surveys, standards, techniques, training, and policy leadership.

Relationships on Training Program. The relationship between the Personnel Representatives and the central Training Division evidenced a similar type of collaboration. Through a steady campaign of suggestion the Personnel Representatives attempted to keep the supervisors familiar with both the needs and the opportunities for improving work and morale by means of training. When it appeared that a training program was desirable, the purpose and scope of the program, the background of the people concerned, the desired content of the program, the determination of those who should be responsible for instruction, and the necessary mechanics of time, space, and equipment were discussed. Participants in these discussions were the Training Division staff, the appropriate Personnel Representative, and the operating supervisors, who collaborated in drafting the proposed train-

ing program. Evaluation of the completed training program was a joint endeavor participated in not only by the Training Division staff and the Personnel Representative but also by the operating officials and—a factor which is too often ignored—by the trainees themselves.

Personnel Representatives and Employee Relations Activities. The relationships between the Personnel Representatives and the central Employee Relations Division followed, generally, the same pattern. The Personnel Representatives were individually responsible for giving guidance and assistance to operating supervisors on the disposition of employee relations problems, but in this process they had constant access to the services of the Employee Relations Division. This service was obtained informally by telephone or personal contact, by the referral of an employee to the central counseling staff, or by the joint participation of the Personnel Representative and the central staff in working out a satisfactory solution. The Personnel Representatives never relinquished their responsibility for helping the operating supervisor solve employee relations problems that affected employees' morale, efficiency, or productivity, even though specific cases were referred to the central Employee Relations Division from time to time.

Collaboration with Placement Division. A summary outline of the collaboration of the Personnel Representatives with the Placement Division reveals that, in this instance, the central staff played a more active role in the actual line of operations than was true of any of the other central office divisions. As soon as a vacancy was imminent, the Personnel Representative was responsible for securing all of the information he possibly could from the responsible operating officials, particularly emphasizing the qualifications required to perform the job. This information was passed on to the central Placement Division, which then probed the resources of the agency to see whether the position could appropriately be filled by the promo-

tion or transfer of some qualified employee already in the service of the agency. Panels of names of qualified employees were submitted by the Placement Division to the Personnel Representative for presentation to the operating supervisor. If this source yielded no results, the Placement Division referred the names of outside applicants who had been interviewed and appeared to be qualified or forwarded the request to the Civil Service Commission for certification of eligibles from its registers.

When the time came for the actual selection of an employee, it was up to the Personnel Representative to check the individual's background and previous employment history to determine whether or not he met the minimum requirements for the job. The actual selection, of course, was made by the responsible operating supervisor.

Observations on FEA Experience with Personnel Representative Program

THE TRIAL RUN of the Personnel Representative system in the Foreign Economic Administration furnished some definite clues as to the possibilities of relative success or failure under this plan of organization. On the basis of our two-year experiment we believe it possible to develop a personnel structure which overcomes a great many of the disadvantages of the traditional specialist system without at the same time engendering too many new weaknesses of its own. Admittedly many refinements in the definition of working relationships and delineation of responsibilities remain to be worked out. Despite these imperfections we urge continuing exploration in the area of our foregoing discussion with the firm conviction that it offers fruitful outcomes.

In undertaking to establish a system of Personnel Representatives several obstacles had to be surmounted. Not least among them was persuading a group of personnel specialists that a different and somewhat novel arrangement held reasonable prospect of being successful. During the first six months we were confronted with and tacitly accepted a fairly high turnover of

personnel staff in order to obtain, so far as possible, a like-minded group which accepted the "religion" of our generalist approach.

We faced another obstacle in developing smooth working relationships and redefining responsibilities of the line operators' administrative assistants with respect to the Personnel Representatives. In order to prevent misunderstandings as to who was responsible for what, we consciously aimed to strip the administrative assistant of his previously assigned prerogatives in the field of personnel matters, although we most assuredly left him an important job to do in other fields. We hold that the very roots of the personnel program should grow from the direct and intimate relationship between the responsible operating supervisor and the Personnel Representative, who is assigned to serve as a "personnel director in miniature" for his part of the organization. For that reason we sought to prevent development of an intermediate layer insulating the Personnel Representative from the operating official.

We are keenly aware of the controversial nature of the position we take on this assignment of responsibilities. Among a group of outstanding students and practitioners of public administration who reviewed a preliminary draft of this article there was a distinct cleavage of opinion on this point. Some heartily underscored our viewpoint, while others held just as staunchly that administrative assistants serve an indispensable purpose as connecting links between line supervisors and representatives of the Personnel Office. On one point there was practically complete agreement: these particular relationships deserve further study and experimentation.

In three respects we believe our efforts with the generalist Personnel Representative system were rewarded. First, the reaction of supervisors was reasonably favorable. They commended the centering of responsibility for all personnel matters in a single individual, and when vocal, they

otherwise expressed satisfaction with the quality of counsel received. Practically no objection to the system itself came to our ears from the supervisors who lived with it.

Next, the actual performance of Personnel Representatives in applying techniques of the specialized personnel fields, was in our judgment, satisfactory. Recognizing that we fell short of absolute performance, we still believe the technical standards maintained by the Personnel Representatives were in general adequate. Particularly were we encouraged by the record of objectivity maintained by the Personnel Representatives.

Finally, the most heartening part of the entire experience was the apparent personal development of the participating personnel staff. The unusual enthusiasm exhibited during the period and expressions of satisfaction ten months thereafter suggest that the approach holds more than ordinary appeal for persons willing to grow in a job.

Conclusion

OUR POSITION sums up to this: A chief responsibility of the Personnel Office is to help the operating supervisor fulfill his personnel management responsibilities, while maintaining consistent application of personnel policies and standards. Such a responsibility becomes at once a basic philosophy of personnel management. To put a philosophy into practice requires some sort of organization structure. Thus a method of organization bears an intimate relation to the application of a philosophy of personnel management.

In our view the wider use of personnel generalists, backed up by and working closely with central personnel specialists, offers distinct advantages for developing more realistic means of dealing with the personnel aspects of management. It hardly need be said that we would heartily welcome further exploration and comment along the lines of our discussion.

An Approach to Test Analysis for Public Personnel Agencies . . . D. D. FEDER

THE REQUIREMENTS of good testing procedure cannot be satisfied by merely administering a test, scoring it, establishing an eligible list and then filing away the test papers for posterity. Similarly unsatisfactory is a division of the examining staff's work in which one group of technicians constructs tests and another analyzes them, but where there is independence of operation and oftentimes failure to correlate findings. Therefore, in addition to the use of proper techniques of construction and administration of a written test, certain essential analyses are necessary to serve as a basis for continuing improvement in the personnel selection operation.

The procedures herein presented comprise a program of minimum essentials. It is recognized, of course, that many agencies may perform much more detailed and comprehensive analyses of their written tests. It is also recognized that almost every agency is usually confronted with an examination load greater in volume than the technical staff can be expected to analyze completely. Therefore, the procedures recommended here have been selected in the light of two criteria: usability and adequacy of resulting information; and economy of time and effort required.

Step 1: Description of the Population

AS A FIRST STEP, certain basic statistics should be obtained for every test administered, both for the purpose of describing the performance of the particular test group, and also as a reference framework for evaluating the test. For example, if the performance of a given sample is taken as the baseline, repeated use of the test will reveal changes in the quality of applicants over a period of time.

D. D. FEDER is Executive Officer, Illinois State Civil Service Commission.

Again, if an effort is to be made simultaneously to create several forms of a test for alternating use, the application of all the items to a common sample will make possible the creation of separate forms whose difficulty is established in terms of a common group of subjects. Translating the raw scores for the various forms into percentile ranks or some other standard score then makes possible easy interpretation of a score on any one form in terms of the equivalent percentile rank on another.

When tests are to be exchanged with other personnel agencies, basic statistics on the performance of a tested group are essential to guide the cooperating agencies in forming judgments as to the usability of the test in a particular situation.

The arithmetic mean and standard deviation, as well as the median and semi-interquartile range, have acquired universal acceptance as part of the minimum essentials of test statistics. The total score range obtained is important to indicate the overall limits of the sample on which the test was used. Trends in quality from one test group to another, derived from a study of measures of central tendency and dispersion, may become important in defining critical scores for pass-fail, and may serve effectively pending the empirical validation of the test and the establishment of experimentally defined critical scores.

Step 2: The Critical Score

IT WILL BE FOUND occasionally that the frequency distribution from which the basic statistics are derived may break very naturally at some point within the range of scores and thus permit the establishment of a passing score in terms of the behavior of the sample. For example, if the tabulation of total scores shows a noticeable gap between the top quarter of the group and

the remainder of the group, there is strong justification for locating the passing score where the gap occurs.

In general, of course, the critical score should be derived on the basis of validating study (to be discussed in more detail at a later point), but in the absence of such data, the technician must be guided by the available supply and the anticipated demand. Specific local policies may thus naturally define critical or cut-off scores for pass-fail. However, the current trend is to set up shorter lists more nearly representing the true employment prospects in a given jurisdiction. In line with this practice, the cut-off scores should not be an arbitrarily defined "70 per cent" or similar figure, but rather a figure which will pass an adequate number of persons in terms of the known and predictable availability of jobs in the class for which the examination is being given.

Step 3: Reliability of the Test

A BASIC CONSIDERATION of any test is that of its stability. Will it, upon repeated administrations at a later date, give the same group of people essentially the same rank on each administration? Will it, upon administration to essentially similar samples, yield approximately the same values of central tendency and dispersion, and of item difficulty and discrimination values? The answers to these questions may be found partially in the coefficient of reliability of the examination. Here again it is important to note that the sample on which the reliability of the test is established must be described and defined. There is no such thing as *the* reliability of an examination, since the reliability coefficient is dependent upon the distribution characteristics of the sample. Hence we should speak of the reliability of a given examination for a given sample of persons.

Several methods of deriving reliability may be found in the textbooks. Since repeated administration of the same test to the same group is generally impractical in the typical public personnel agency, we are of necessity confined to deriving reli-

ability from a single administration of the test. For this purpose, the Kuder-Richardson formula represents a rapid and simple means of estimating test reliability.¹ It requires none of the time-consuming calculation of odd-even scores, and in general yields coefficients closely comparable with those derived by the split-halves methods corrected by the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula. As will be seen by inspection of the formula, only those data are needed which would be derived in Step 1, discussed earlier in this article.

Two cautions may be noted in the use of the Kuder-Richardson formula. It has a tendency to underestimate reliability when coefficients go above .90. Similarly it underestimates reliability for "power" tests; i.e., tests given with such generous time limits that all or nearly all of the subjects complete the test in the time allowed. Both of these errors in the direction of over-conservatism are actually desirable. They are mentioned here as a safeguard against unwarranted inferiority feelings regarding the quality of a test.

What shall be considered an acceptable level of reliability has been discussed extensively in the literature. Since in personnel selection we attempt to make individual predictions, we should strive for reliability coefficients of .90 or better.

Step 4: Evaluating Test Items

INFORMATION on the discriminatory value and difficulty of individual items is inval-

¹G. F. Kuder and M. W. Richardson, "The Theory of the Estimation of Test Reliability." *Psychometrika*. Sept., 1937, pp. 151-60. The formula is as follows:

$$r_{tt} = \frac{\sigma^2 t^2 - \frac{M_t(n - M_t)}{n}}{\sigma^2 t^2}$$

r_{tt} = reliability coefficient

n = number of items in test

$\sigma^2 t$ = the standard deviation of the test

M_t = the mean of the test

(Note: This formula is derived from #21 and #22 in the reference cited above. It involves the assumption that all the items are of approximately equal difficulty. Formula #20 in the reference does not require this assumption, but is not cited here because it is believed that the simpler treatment given above will satisfy the requirements of our work.)

able, not only as a measure of the effectiveness of the test in the immediate situation, but also as a measure of their value in an item stockpile for future use. To this end, a simple method of item analysis in terms of biserial correlation analysis is proposed.

The process is essentially one of determining the ability of each item in the test to discriminate between those who did well on the test as a whole and those who did poorly on the test as a whole. An item possesses exceptional discriminatory value, for example, if it is answered correctly by nine out of every ten persons in the top 25 per cent of those taking the test, and is answered incorrectly by everyone in the bottom 25 per cent of those taking the test. With the total test score serving as the criterion, such an item has contributed substantially to the ranking of those taking the test.

The method of item analysis suggested here is equally applicable where the tallying of item responses is done by hand, or where the IBM test scoring machine with the item counter is available.² Under either method, much time can be saved in computing biserial coefficients by using a table devised originally by Flanagan.³ The table, a reproduction of which accompanies this article, can be used to determine quickly and without computation the coefficient value of a given item. Once the examiner has determined how the high and low portions of the test group performed on the item, its coefficient value is found at the point where the two percentage-of-correct-answers values intersect on the horizontal and vertical scales.

The over-all analysis procedure involves the following steps:

² In a recent study, two Naval officers have shown the superior accuracy and economy of item analyses made by the use of the Graphic Item Counter on the Test Scoring Machines. See "The Economy of Item Analysis with the I.B.M. Graphic Item Counter." Lt. Walter J. McNamara and Lt. Ellis Weitzman. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. February, 1946; pp. 84-90.

³ John C. Flanagan. "General Considerations in the Selection of Test Items and a Short Method of Estimating the Product-Moment Coefficient from Data at the Tails of the Distribution." *Journal of Educational Psychology*. December, 1939, pp 674-80.

1. The tests are scored and a frequency distribution of the total scores is prepared.

2. The answer sheets (assuming IBM machine scored answer sheets are used) or test papers of the top 27 per cent and the bottom 27 per cent of the cases are selected for analysis. (In practice, to simplify the percentage conversions, the top and bottom 25 per cent of the cases may be used without doing violence to the statistics. Also, to save time, choose a number of cases which converts to 100 per cent easily. Thus if the test group consists of 500 cases it may be reduced to 400 by eliminating every fifth case after the papers are ranked. Then the top 100 and the bottom 100 may be used, with the resulting numerical count automatically being the percentage count.)

3. By means of the item counter on the IBM test-scoring machine, or by hand, count the frequency of choice of each response on each item.

4. Convert the counts thus obtained to percentages and refer to the table. The estimated R_{Bis} for the item will be found where the two percentage values intersect on the horizontal and vertical scales. Interpolation may be made by inspection if necessary.

5. If the R_{Bis} is positive, the item has discriminated in favor of the higher scoring candidates. If the R_{Bis} is negative, the item has contributed to the scores of the lower scoring candidates rather than to those of the high candidates.

6. The general criteria for significance of correlation coefficients apply. Items with R_{Bis} below .30 may be too easy, or they may be ambiguous. Items with R_{Bis} of .50 or better represent satisfactory levels of performance. Items which discriminate negatively should be examined for ambiguity and, since they reverse the intent of the examination, they should be eliminated if they cannot be repaired. Items with very low R_{Bis} have poor discriminatory value, and are generally too easy. Although a few such items may well occur at the beginning of a test, they actually represent dead weight as far as score determinant value is concerned, and the

A TABLE OF THE VALUES OF THE PRODUCT MOMENT COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION IN A NORMAL BIVARIATE POPULATION CORRESPONDING TO GIVEN PROPORTIONS OF SUCCESSSES

[illegible]

Example. The correlation coefficient between the continuous variable and an item on which 68% of the group achieving scores in the highest 27% for the continuous variable succeed, is .35, and on which 34% of the group achieving scores in the lowest 27% for the continuous variable succeed, is .35.

quantity of these easy items should be kept at a minimum.

7. In the case of multiple-choice items, counts of the number in each group who chose each of the "distractors" (false answers) is important evidence to be considered. A distractor chosen by none or very few of the low group logically may be considered excess baggage and should be considered for elimination on subsequent revisions of the item. For example, in a four-choice multiple-response item, when only one distractor works, the effect is to create a true-false item.

8. Calculation of a simple difficulty value for each item may be obtained by averaging the two percentage correct values. While absolute accuracy requires elimination of the number who omitted the item, in several studies made by the writer this has little effect on the obtained values, and for ease of operation the percentage correct values may be used. Thus, the easier items will approach 100 per cent, and this value will decrease as item difficulty increases.

With the information derived from the foregoing analysis at hand on stockpile items, the technician may build tests of any desired difficulty and with discrimination power designed to fit the group to be tested. Furthermore, the agency is armed with factual information against which it may assess the preliminary validity of its examinations and make some determinations as to their adequacy for the use intended.

Step 5: Validation of the Test

IN EVERY FIELD of personnel measurement experimental validation of tests against independent external criteria has lagged far behind all other phases of test technique. The reasons are mainly twofold. First, there is the difficulty of finding an adequate outside criterion. In most employment situations service ratings, when kept at all, are most often crude and unreliable, and do not in themselves yield pronounced score spread. Work production records are generally lacking, and frequently are not pertinent in public per-

sonnel practice. Second, when a test is given in actual practice and the eligible list is established, the low scoring end of the distribution is lopped off, and the technician thus loses that segment of the population on whom his most reliable predictions might be made.

Expert opinion in the selection and construction of items is, of course, the first guarantee of the "face validity" of the test. By this criterion a test "looks right." Item validation as discussed in the preceding step reveals the extent to which each individual item is valid, assuming that the test as a whole has face validity. But the ultimate criterion of whether the test itself is really valid depends upon the extent to which it predicts relative success or failure on the job.

If valid and reliable on-the-job ratings were available for a given classification, the ideal situation would be to give an examination, pass all the candidates, place them at work, and then follow them up on the job, ultimately correlating their test scores with their efficiency rating at work. This would free the resulting statistics from the errors due to restricting the range of scores. It is unnecessary to belabor the impracticality of attempting to achieve this "ideal" situation. Unless full cooperation of all affected appointing authorities were secured, and unless appointments were made without reference to rank order, the experiment would quickly break down. Furthermore, it is doubtful whether the law of any jurisdiction would sanction such an experiment. What, then, is a practical, meaningful, and technically acceptable solution that may be effected?

Having enlisted the cooperation of the appointing authorities for the study, for example, of a prison guard examination, the first step is to take a designated sample of those who took a common examination, and who have completed a minimum period of work. This minimum should be some time beyond the probationary period. Then, with the aid of appropriate supervisors, the guards should be separated into two groups—high average and above, and low average and below—in terms

merely of supervisors' judgments. (This procedure assumes that only minimum steps will be possible. If time and cooperation are available, an effort to rate the guards in terms of defined performance criteria will, of course, measurably improve the reliability of the supervisors' judgments.)

The two groups thus obtained should be first subdivided into two equal groups each—the best and the rest, and the worst and the rest. In the absence of valid performance data on service ratings, this two-step division method will generally yield more sharply defined differences than if a four-step grouping is attempted at the outset.

With the two extreme groups differentiated in terms of their satisfactoriness to their appointing authority, i.e., their supervisors, the next step is to tabulate their scores, comparing frequency distributions for degree of overlap, evaluating mean differences for statistical significance, etc. The process here is similar to the principles employed in deriving actuarial tables. The end result should be the possibility of pre-

dicting relative prospects of excellent and poor performance for an obtained score level.

In general, the foregoing method will yield meaningful differentials, certainly more so than can be derived from the generally low validity correlation coefficients which result when the entire lower end of the sample has been eliminated from study by the operation of customary selection procedures.

Many readers will see the possibility of introducing variants into the foregoing procedures which will make for more complete or reliable data in their own particular situations. It has been our purpose here to indicate only some readily accomplished minima, not to delineate a program of perfectionism.

It is believed that if the foregoing steps are taken by public personnel agencies with regard to their tests, much will have been accomplished in the direction of justifying the existence of technicians as something more than test item librarians. And of even greater significance will be the resultant improvement of future tests.

Personnel Administration in the Port of New York Authority . EDGAR B. YOUNG

TWENTY-FIVE YEARS AGO the states of New Jersey and New York joined forces through utilization of the compact clause of the constitution to create a unique type of public agency, the Port of New York Authority. The avowed purpose of the two states in adopting the port compact was to "agree to and pledge, each to the other, faithful cooperation in the future planning and development of the port of New York, holding in high trust for the benefit of the nation the special blessings and natural advantages thereof." By their action, the peoples of the port district on both sides of the Hudson River recognized the economic unity of the area despite the political boundary running down the center of the river. They created an instrumentality which could act for them in the preservation and promotion of the economic life and transportation facilities of the port district and which could be motivated by the interests of the district as a whole rather than the local interests of the communities on either side of the great river which is at the center of this "port of many ports."

The port compact and subsequent legislation authorizing specific Port Authority projects have given this agency broad governmental powers including "authority to purchase, construct, lease and/or operate any terminal or transportation facility within said district; and to make charges for the use thereof; and for any of such purposes to own, hold, lease and/or operate real or personal property, to borrow money and secure the same by bonds or by mortgages upon any property held or to be held by it."

Perhaps of greatest significance in the

development of the Port Authority as a unique agency in the field of public administration is the fact that the power to tax was not granted this agency. Therefore the economic environment within which the Port Authority operates is unlike that of the typical city, state, or federal department. It is much more akin to the economic environment of a private corporation. For the Port Authority, in all its activities, must be self-supporting. It must finance all of its projects upon its own credit. It must operate with a cost-consciousness seldom found when the source of funds for the operation of a public agency is resort to the public purse.

THE ECONOMIC THEORY of Port Authority activities can be very simply stated in a paradox. The Port Authority has no business on the one hand embarking on any activity unless and until it has been shown that private capital cannot or will not finance the venture. On the other hand the Port Authority has no business undertaking any project unless, under the conditions of Port Authority operation with its important tax exemption feature, the investing public can be assured of the soundness of the proposal as a self-supporting and self-liquidating proposition. Thus the Port Authority operates in a very narrow economic margin and the favorable consideration of any project may depend upon the accuracy of estimates of operating revenues and the utilization of every economy and prudent safeguard in the financing and operation of the undertaking.

Port Authority facilities now include the Holland and Lincoln Tunnels, the George Washington Bridge and the three bridges between Staten Island and New Jersey, the Union Inland Railroad Freight Station located in the Port Authority Building in Manhattan, and the Port Authority Grain Terminal on Gowanus Bay, Brook-

EDGAR B. YOUNG has been until recently Assistant to the Executive Director, Port of New York Authority. He is now a member of the staff of the office of John D. Rockefeller, Jr.

lyn. Under construction are large union truck terminals in lower Manhattan and in Newark. At the request of the city of Newark, the Authority is preparing a report on the possibility of administering Newark Airport and Port Newark.

The total investment in existing Port Authority properties amounts to about 240 million dollars. Authorized improvements and extensions and new facilities represents an additional 10.5 million dollars. Port Authority revenues over the past 18 years amounted to 216 million dollars. Of this amount, 50 million dollars was spent for operating expenses, 83 million for interest payments, and the balance of 83 million applied to debt reduction, the establishment of reserves, and additions and betterments to facilities. At the present time the annual interest charge is \$4,800,000. Interest costs have ranged from 5.11 per cent in 1929 down to the sale in February, 1946, of \$18,757,000 of 40-year bonds at a net average interest cost of 1.358 per cent, the lowest rate ever enjoyed by any state or municipal agency.

Organizational Structure of the Authority

THE GOVERNING BOARD of the Port of New York Authority is a commission of twelve unsalaried members, six appointed by the governors of New Jersey and New York for six-year overlapping terms. The fact that the Port Authority commissionerships are unsalaried has had an important bearing through the years upon the calibre of men who have been appointed to this high office and, in turn, upon the character of the organization. The post of Port Authority commissioner is regarded in both New Jersey and New York as a position of honor rather than a political plum, and the result has been appointments of high order from among leaders in civic, business and financial circles. The commission has been composed of men who have a deep sense of their public responsibility, and at the same time apply their business ability and experience to the operation of the agency.

The commission functions as a board

of directors. It operates through four committees, namely Port Planning, Operations, Construction and Finance, which committees consider all recommendations before their presentation to the Board. The Committee on Operations handles all personnel matters.

The Executive Director is the top administrative or executive officer and is analogous to the president of a corporation. He is elected annually by the commission. The major functions or activities of the Port Authority are carried on through the department of Port Development, the department of Operations and the Engineering department, each performing functions indicated by their titles. The organization structure is completed with a Legal department, a department of Audit and Control, a Real Estate department and an Administrative department which includes Public Relations, Personnel, Purchase and Special Services, and Medical. All department heads report immediately to the Executive Director with the exception of the Personnel Director, Medical Director and Director of Purchase and Special Services, who report through the Assistant to the Executive Director.

The Personnel Program

THE PERSONNEL of the Port Authority numbers about 1400, of whom about 500 are traffic officers in the Port Authority police force which guards and expedites the flow of traffic in Port Authority tunnels and bridges and collects tolls. About 500 are maintenance employees and the balance are office, technical and professional employees.

The Port Authority commission has absolute autonomy in personnel matters. It has unquestioned legal authority to hire and fire Port Authority employees without restrictions normally imposed by the state laws of either New York or New Jersey upon the employment of state personnel. This freedom from restrictions or regulations on personnel matters has been a great asset to the Port Authority through the years but the very existence of the freedom has imposed upon the commis-

sioners an obligation to adopt administratively and voluntarily those personnel policies which have been proved through experience in public agencies to be essential to effective operation. Thus the Port Authority has adopted a merit system for selection and promotion of personnel, a position classification and salary plan, a guarantee of tenure of office, a retirement plan, and a constructive program of labor relations. But it has adopted these policies in a situation free from restrictions—a circumstance which has presented a most unusual opportunity to utilize the best features of public personnel administration.

From the very beginning, Port Authority employees have tended to make employment with the Authority a lifetime career. Unlike city, state or federal administration, there were no periodic upheavals and changes of administration. The form of the commission tended toward continuity of policy and stability of employment. Recently in conjunction with the 25th anniversary, 25-year service pins were awarded to eleven employees who had been with the Port Authority or its predecessor organizations for that period of time or longer. Forty-nine employees have been here in excess of twenty years and 621 have ten years or more of service.

The present management of the Port Authority has adopted a philosophy about personnel administration which identifies responsibility for personnel matters with the total job of management. Personnel responsibilities are regarded as something which line officials from the Executive Director down must exercise and cannot delegate in their entirety to the Personnel Office. The Personnel Office is recognized as an important staff adjunct to the management and an important service to the line officials in the operating departments.

The various parts of the total personnel program will be discussed under their customary functional headings.

Recruitment

THE NORMAL points of entry into Port Authority employment are at the entrance

grades in the respective services, such as traffic officer in the police force; messenger, junior clerk or junior stenographer in the office force; and building or field attendant in the maintenance force. The most highly organized recruiting programs have been conducted from time to time when expansion has been necessary on the traffic force. Periodically, open competitive examinations for position of traffic officer have been conducted, following the line of traditional police examinations with establishment of an eligible list from which appointments are made.

Recruitment for the entrance level of clerical positions as vacancies arise, has also been made through utilization of competitive examinations, but generally without the establishment of eligible lists which have remained in force for any protracted period of time. On the contrary, examinations have been conducted to fill currently vacant positions and candidates for such examinations have been recruited from among those who have previously filed applications or as a result of newspaper advertising.

The entrance levels of maintenance positions have generally been filled by selection of persons who meet minimum physical and medical standards. While all such candidates are examined by the Medical Department, up to the present time other formalized examining methods have not been used in the selection of this type of personnel. This practice is not defended by the Port Authority but is simply recognized as one area in which there could be further development and improvement in selection techniques. Some constructive developments in practical selection tests have occurred in the recruiting of bridge painters—an occupation which requires direct employment from outside the organization.

Recruitment for key technical, professional and administrative positions, when it has become necessary to go outside the organization, likewise has been upon a merit basis but without any formalized examination or establishment of eligible lists. The field of potential candidates for

vacant positions has been canvassed as thoroughly as was possible and comprehensive checks have been made on the background, training, experience, and personal qualifications of candidates for such key positions. Recommendations for appointments to these positions are made by the department head concerned to the Executive Director and in turn by him to the Committee on Operations.

Promotional Policy

THE PORT AUTHORITY has a policy of promoting from within whenever possible. This policy is carried out through the rank and file of positions by extensive use of promotional examinations. When vacancies exist they are posted on bulletin boards and applications from employees who meet the announced qualifications are received in the Personnel Office. Qualified applicants are admitted to competitive examinations which are constructed and rated by the Personnel Office with the cooperation of the officials of the department in which the vacancy occurs. Promotional examinations in most instances consist of a written test, together with an oral interview conducted by the department head or his representative and a representative from the Personnel Office. For the maintenance trades, the examinations also include a practical performance test. The volume of promotional examinations is indicated by the fact that during a recent twelve-month period, seventy-one such examinations were held.

As presently established, the Port Authority promotion system provides no organized procedure for the reclassification of an employee concurrently with the reclassification of his position. In a number of instances it has been deemed in the best interest of the Port Authority as well as in the interest of the employee involved, to make exceptions to the competitive promotional system where, in fact, the duties of an employee have materially changed and his job has grown into a more difficult or more responsible job than that which he originally filled.

The Port Authority promotion system

presents another problem which has as yet been unsolved. It provides no means for bringing into the organization promising young men or women with training or experience to begin functioning at a junior administrative level with prospects for training and advancement to more responsible supervisory or executive positions. The material for promotion to these higher positions is limited to those who are available and willing to take jobs at the salary levels offered at the bottom rung of the ladder in each type of service.

Classification and Salary Administration

THE PORT AUTHORITY determines its own salary rates and its own classification of positions. It has had the benefit of advice from the Municipal Service Bureau of the New York State Civil Service Commission, which conducted a classification survey of Port Authority positions in 1941 and made recommendations that form the basis for the existing position-classification system. Class specifications are currently revised to reflect changes and expansion in the organization.

In the determination of salary rates, there has been a general policy to pay rates equivalent to those paid by the best types of private and public agencies in the vicinity for similar types of work. In keeping with this policy, when the 1941 classification and salary survey was conducted, the recommendation for salary rates was based upon those rates found among the upper quartile in the frequency distribution of salary rates for the particular kind of work in the metropolitan New York area. As rates have been adjusted from time to time, the policy reflected by the foregoing classification has been followed.

The autonomous nature of the Port Authority has permitted the pinnacle of the salary pyramid to be established at a level well above that common in public agencies but below the salary levels for top executive positions in private industry. The Commissioners of the Port Authority have recognized the responsibilities placed upon their chief administrative officials and they have not hesitated to pay salaries

commensurate with those responsibilities. They have felt that the public was entitled to the service of men fully as well qualified as those secured by public utilities of similar size, and they have paid salaries to get and retain such men.

For the principal technical, professional and administrative positions, salaries are fixed administratively subject to the approval of the Committee on Operations. On an individual basis, careful consideration is given to keep salary rates of various positions in line with each other but at the same time there is sufficient flexibility to pay an individual employee and to adjust his salary from time to time in recognition of his particular background or contribution to the organization. There is a complete freedom, on this level, from any restrictive upper or lower limits or regularity of advancement.

For the rank and file positions, which generally go up to a salary level of about \$4,000 a year, the salary ranges are established for each grade and the customary practice of appointments at entrance rates with periodic advancement through the steps of the grade to the top rate are followed.

Tenure of Office and Disciplinary Procedure

AS INDICATED EARLIER, Port Authority employees tended, through the years, to make a career of their Port Authority employment. The Commissioners thought it wise to recognize the desirability of career service and adopted in 1941 a tenure of office resolution which provided as follows:

Each permanent employee shall be deemed to be employed upon the condition that he shall not be removed from the particular office or position held by him, except for good and sufficient cause or reason; and * * * only after a hearing under such rules and regulations of The Port of New York Authority as may then be in effect. It is the intent of this resolution to create for the permanent employees of The Port of New York Authority a tenure of employment which will be permanent, subject to good behavior, the proper performance of his duties, or the possible reorganization or reduction of personnel (in whole or in part) in the interest of efficiency, economy or otherwise. Any dismissal, demotion or transfer of an employee, or the abolition of a particular office or position, for any other or hidden motives shall be

regarded as violative of the spirit under which this resolution is adopted.

Pursuant to this general statement of policy, regulations have been issued setting forth a detailed procedure for taking disciplinary action and insuring employees of the right to a hearing before a board appointed specifically for the purpose in connection with any disciplinary charge. This hearing procedure was recently simplified for any instances involving employees holding key supervisory, administrative or technical positions. Such employees are assured the opportunity of a hearing directly before their department head and for a review before the Executive Director. Disciplinary action involving any department head is reserved specifically to the Board of Commissioners.

The management of the Port Authority has not hesitated to use its disciplinary procedure, and within recent years there are several instances where individual employees, by their own actions, forfeited any right to expect continued employment and were discharged after appropriate disciplinary proceedings.

Retirement

ALTHOUGH they are not state employees, Port Authority employees participate in the New York State Retirement System. Since they are public employees, they are not covered by Federal Old Age and Survivors Insurance nor by state unemployment compensation protection. At the time of the decision to bring Port Authority employees into the state retirement system, careful consideration was given to various private pension plans and the conclusion was reached that the state retirement system offered the greatest protection at the least cost of any of the numerous plans considered.

Employee Relations

PORT AUTHORITY employees are organized into four different groups. The police force has its own Police Benevolent Association, similar to organizations of that title in municipal police forces. The maintenance employees have been organized in

the Port Authority Employees Association. Recently an additional organization has been established among maintenance employees under a charter from the American Federation of Labor Federal Headquarters. The office and clerical forces have an organization known as the Port Authority Associates.

The management recognizes clearly the right of a Port Authority employee to join or not to join these organizations. The management has no written contracts with any of these organizations but discusses personnel matters as they arise with individual employees or with the organizations affected. It has become standard practice before adopting any major change in personnel policy to discuss the proposal with the presidents of all four organizations in a meeting assembled for this purpose.

Another important feature of employee relations in the Port Authority is the existence of an employees welfare fund. This fund is administered by a committee of elected representatives of the employees. The fund is raised from voluntary contributions from individual employees and employee organizations and by transfer to the fund of amounts representing the salary equivalent of any disciplinary fines imposed upon members of the traffic force. The fund is used for making loans or grants to meet emergency financial situations of needy Port Authority employees or their families.

The Port Authority provides a cafeteria for its employees in the Port Authority Building and at the Holland Tunnel. Plans are currently under consideration for a third cafeteria to be established for employees at the Lincoln Tunnel. At each of these locations there are almost no nearby eating places which serve good food at moderate prices. The Port Authority has conducted its cafeterias under a price policy which permits it to break even on food costs alone, with a resultant average cost per meal of just under thirty cents. Port Authority management subsidizes the cafeteria by the provision of space and equipment and the payment of labor costs. The cafeterias have proved to be exceed-

ingly popular with the employees, have improved their health and have been regarded by the management as an important feature of employee relations.

A house organ, known as the *P.A. Diary*, is published by the Authority. This organ is used not only for the customary type of reporting on employee activities and matters of general employee interest; but also as a means of securing employee understanding of the work and obligations of the agency. The *P.A. Diary* is published by the Public Relations Department and makes extensive use of photographs of employees and employee events produced by the Port Authority photographic division.

THE COMMISSIONERS have established two honorary awards. The Port Authority Medal of Honor is awarded to employees "who have performed an outstandingly meritorious act at personal risk to themselves with resulting credit to themselves and the organization." The second award is the Port Authority Distinguished Service Medal "made to employees for unusually efficient or distinguished service involving exceptionally good conduct, judgment or initiative." This medal gives an opportunity to recognize unusually long, faithful and efficient service in the rank and file positions of the organization. The personnel in these types of positions often deserve far greater recognition than appears on the surface through their opportunities for promotion or through salary increases. The award of the Distinguished Service Medal provides an unusual and appropriate means of recognizing such service.

These awards were established early in 1944 and to date only one Medal of Honor has been awarded. It was given to a traffic officer who performed an outstanding act of heroism in the rescue of several men from a burning building at great personal risk to himself. The Distinguished Service Medal has been awarded to seven employees, five of them in the traffic force, one in the maintenance force and one in the office force, in each instance for unusually efficient or outstanding service.

Service emblems representing 5, 10, 20 and 25 years of service respectively are awarded to employees who have completed the requisite number of years of service with the Port Authority. Another type of employee award is made to the winners in the annual police revolver competition. The top man in this competition receives "The Commissioners' Cup" and awards for sharpshooter, expert and marksman are given all traffic officers who qualify in the competition.

All of these various types of Port Authority awards are presented at appropriate public ceremonies by the Chairman or the Vice Chairman. Presentation of such awards is always an occasion for news releases including photographs to the papers in the home towns of the employees involved.

Another unusual type of employee activity, conducted with official sanction and support, is the "Ponya Players," an organization of Port Authority employees which produces annually a musical show and during the war did very valuable work in conducting entertainments at Army, Navy and Veterans' Hospitals. The proceeds from the Ponya Players' shows are contributed to the Employees Welfare Fund.

Hours of Duty, Vacation and Sick Leave

THE ESTABLISHED working schedule varies with type of employment in the Port Authority. The police force follows customary police practice and operates on a six-day schedule of eight hours a day, with shift rotations each week. The maintenance force works an eight-hour day with shift rotations on those phases of the work which must be conducted around the clock. Beginning November 1, 1946, the maintenance force will be placed on a five-day, 40-hour week. The weekly schedule has been 44 hours, with half the force working each alternate Saturday.

The office force works a seven-hour day and a three-hour Saturday with skeleton staff arrangements for Saturday morning in effect from May 1 to October 1. Beginning next October skeleton staff arrangements will be continued on a year-round

basis and during the winter months the daily schedule for office workers will be increased to seven and a half hours.

Vacation policies of the Port Authority are similar to many other public or private agencies and its sick leave policies are unusually liberal. Vacation schedules provide up to one week's vacation for employees with less than one year service, two weeks of vacation for employees with service up to seven years, three weeks vacation for those with service between seven and twelve years and four weeks vacation for service after twelve years. Vacation privileges are administered in much the same manner as is common in private business. Charges against an employee's earned vacation time are made only for vacation purposes (except in occasional instances where vacation time is reduced for disciplinary reasons) and occasional short periods of time off are handled administratively either as excused or compensatory time.

The schedule of sick leave, which also varies with length of service, provides for no sick leave during the three months period of probation; for $\frac{1}{4}$ month full pay and $\frac{1}{2}$ month half pay for illness in the case of employees with less than one year's service; and for gradually increasing amounts until employees with service in excess of ten years are entitled to three months at full pay and nine months at half pay for any one illness. It is significant that this schedule of sick leave allowances applies to any single illness and not to any calendar period of time. While this arrangement is theoretically subject to abuse, experience with the program in the Port Authority over a number of years does not indicate that such has been the case. One important element of control has been the attention paid to employee illness by the Port Authority Medical Department and the requirement for medical examinations after each period of illness. The schedule of sick leave allowances is only a yardstick. When circumstances of a particular case warrant, the Executive Director may, with the approval of the Committee on Operations, authorize lib-

eral and sympathetic extensions of sick leave beyond the schedule. Special arrangements are usually made in tuberculosis cases to grant one year of sick leave at full pay.

Health and Safety

THE NATURE of Port Authority operations has presented a number of unusual health and accident hazards and has resulted in very active attention by the management of the Port Authority to the health and safety of its employees. The health program is administered by a Medical Director and three other physicians, all of whom are employed on a part-time basis. Clinics are established at the Port Authority Building, and at Holland and Lincoln Tunnels. The four physicians represent several specialties including orthopedics and respiratory diseases. Equipment of the Medical Department includes fluoroscope, X-ray and cardiograph machines.

All employees are subject to rigid pre-appointment examinations. A schedule of periodic examinations which heretofore have been once every two years is being stepped up to require annual examinations. The Medical Department also handles the medical phase of competitive examinations for the selection of traffic officers and all other types of personnel.

Emergency first aid service is available at the clinics and Port Authority physicians follow particularly closely any cases of injuries on duty. In any instance of suspected malingering on the part of an employee on sick leave, a Port Authority physician may make a home visit to ascertain the facts of the alleged illness.

The accident hazards of the Port Authority exist primarily in the operating department so that the safety program is administered by a Safety Supervisor attached to that department. The program includes a continuous educational activity and careful investigation of all accidents as well as correction of accident hazards.

Training

LIKE MOST POLICE FORCES, the Port Authority police rookies are selected on the

basis of their potentialities to become policemen rather than upon the basis of any prior experience. Therefore an intensive indoctrination and training course has been a prerequisite for the development of the Port Authority traffic force. Training of this force has involved a number of special features, particularly in the handling of tunnel emergencies such as fires and other break-downs.

Other types of training have been conducted by joint efforts of the department involved and the personnel office, and particular attention has been given to courses in certain of the maintenance fields designed to prepare men to qualify for promotion to more highly skilled positions. An unusual type of Port Authority position is that of Tunnel Equipment Maintainer. A particularly successful training course has been developed to prepare men for this type of work. The training is conducted as a combination of practical working experience and lecture or discussion sessions, which make extensive use of a specially prepared manual dealing with the theory and technical aspects of the operation of tunnel ventilation and electrical equipment.

Port Authority employees are actively encouraged to take courses related to their work at local institutions, and employees who take such courses with proper prior permission are reimbursed upon the successful completion of the course for their tuition charges.

Veterans' Reintegration

THE PORT AUTHORITY had 209 employees in military or naval service. The great majority of these have now been discharged and only a few of them have not returned to the Port Authority. Upon his return, each veteran has been considered individually and personally by the management in an effort to place him in a position in the organization where the sum total of his training and background, skills and abilities may be most effectively utilized. It is natural that under such a program many of the veterans would be returned to their former positions but it has been pos-

sible in a considerable number of cases to place veterans in much higher positions than they had occupied prior to their entry into the military service. In a few notable cases it has been possible to give veterans a completely new start in a totally different kind of work, as for example one traffic officer who was placed in the law department and another traffic officer who became a draftsman in the engineering department. Coupled with this policy of individual consideration of the returning veteran has been a practice of granting full seniority rights for all time spent in military service with the general purpose of enabling the veteran to return to employment with the Port Authority at a level which he might reasonably have been expected to attain had he remained here continuously during the period of his military service. These approaches to the veteran reintegration problem have been adopted by the management of the Port Authority as preferable to any type of formalized veterans preference.

Organization for Personnel Work

THE ASSISTANT to the Executive Director is the management's principal officer for the handling of labor relations and the supervision of all personnel matters. The Personnel Director and the Medical Director report to this official. The Personnel Office comprises the Director and Assistant Director, two additional professional assistants working on classification and examination matters and a clerical force of

eight. This office maintains centralized personnel records and conducts the customary personnel staff services. In each of the major departments, an administrative assistant represents the department head in every-day dealings with the personnel office.

In all aspects of personnel management the nature of the Port Authority organization and the attitude of its management towards personnel problems permits a direct and informal relationship to exist between officials of the organization and individual employees or their representatives for the discussion and handling of personnel matters. There is a minimum of rigid rule and regulation and the legal framework of the Port Authority presents a unique opportunity for experimentation and development of the best in public personnel systems.

The Port Authority has achieved a reputation for good management and efficient service and this reputation is necessarily in large part the result of the calibre of staff the organization has been able to maintain. The Commissioners and the staff value highly the editorial tributes recently expressed on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the Port Authority, and typified by the *New York Times* which said:

For a quarter of a century this interstate commission has been building a monument of vast public works. Its long record of service, efficiency, far-sighted intelligence and non-political administration has brought its reputation to a new peak. No similar body in the nation stands higher in public esteem.

The Structure of a Pay Scale . . . ISMAR BARUCH

ONE OF THE major problems involved in the development or revision of a pay plan is to design a schedule of pay scales, or salary ranges, so integrated as to establish proper pay differentials among the various classes of positions, and to serve such personnel transactions as new appointments, transfers, promotions, and merit increases for effective service. Part of this problem requires consideration of the structure of each pay scale, or pay range, in terms of the mathematical relationships of the individual rates within the scale. The following discussion will treat some of the more important considerations in the construction of class pay scales.

Reasons for Pay Ranges

IN PAY PLANS in the public service, pay scales consisting of a range of rates rather than a single flat rate are established for most classes of positions. This makes it possible to pay somewhat different rates, between a definite minimum and maximum, to individuals holding positions of the same classification. The principal purpose of the flexibility thus secured is to permit financial recognition—through pay advancement within the scale—of the increased value of an employee's services as he becomes more experienced and proficient in the work of his position. A range of pay thus serves to establish both incentives and rewards. The normal expectation of a competent employee is to enter the service at the minimum rate of the appropriate pay scale and to receive increases gradually through the rates of the scale in accordance with his service and performance on the job until he reaches

the maximum rate, unless he is promoted to a higher position in the meantime.¹

Basically, a pay scale is a range of pay rates, consisting of a minimum rate, one or more intermediate rates, and a maximum rate, all applicable to a given class of positions. The same range may, of course, apply to different classes of positions. This is evident when a pay range is established for a "classification-grade," or zone of difficulty and responsibility of work, which covers several or many classes of different kinds but of the same level or value.²

The minimum rate is the lowest rate of the scale, below which no employee shall be paid while occupying a position in a class to which the scale applies. It is the rate guaranteed to the employee as long as his work is sufficiently satisfactory to warrant employing him in a position in that class. It is also intended to serve as the entrance rate payable to a new employee on original appointment to a position allocated to that class.

Intermediate rates are primarily for the purpose of recognizing an employee's progress without change of duties or responsibilities, i.e., while occupying the same position. They also permit financial recognition of the various degrees of efficiency, progress, and value of service demonstrated by different employees in posi-

¹ "There is psychological justification for using a range for each group of jobs. . . . Psychological experiment merely confirms the fact which is already apparent in industry, that there are wide differences in the performance of individuals on the same job. It is also recognized that with increasing length of service an employee acquires certain additional worth to the firm which is quite apart from his actual proficiency on the job. The wage scale devised as the end-result of job evaluation should make provisions for compensating the more proficient and more valuable employees."

. . . . As a matter of fact, the opportunity for increasing his rate on the same job is in itself a major incentive to good performance, as well as an important source of satisfaction to the worker who looks forward to a lifetime of service on a job." Morris S. Viteles, "A Psychologist Looks at Job Evaluation," *Personnel*, February, 1941, p. 175.

² See Civil Service Assembly, *Position Classification in the Public Service*, pp. 209-214.

ISMAR BARUCH is Chief of the Personnel Classification Division, United States Civil Service Commission. He is also chairman of the Civil Service Assembly Committee on Position Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Service.

tions of the same class. In the administration of a pay plan, they are directly associated with the conditions or factors which, according to the policy adopted, will determine eligibility for periodic or other increases within the pay scale for a given class.

Intermediate rates are also used in in-service personnel transactions, such as transfers and promotions, when, in the case of overlapping scales, it is desirable to maintain the employee's existing rate or avoid an arbitrary reduction that would be inconsistent with the nature of the transaction. Also, even when pay scales do not overlap, they may be so close together as to lead to an inappropriately small increase when the employee at the top rate of his class is promoted to a higher class. If a policy is adopted of accompanying each promotion by a substantial increase in salary, an intermediate rate of the same scale for the higher class may be used for the purpose.

The maximum rate of a pay scale is the limit of value to the jurisdiction of the work of a given class, taking into account the pay of other classes of positions in the service. Ordinarily, therefore, it is the rate beyond which no employee may be paid while occupying a position in the class, no matter how well he may perform the duties of that class or how long he may have served. An employee who is receiving the maximum rate for the kind of work he is doing must accordingly look for further advances to the machinery of promotion to a higher class.

The fixing of definite maximums combats a natural tendency to pay more than a position is worth to a man who should be given a better job. It also induces alert employees to prepare themselves for promotion to better positions in which they will perform more difficult duties or carry more exacting responsibilities.³

³"Some executives disapprove of maximum salaries for positions on the ground that such limits shut off advancement. But these persons are confused. A maximum salary does not restrict personal advancement to more valuable positions; it establishes a limit to the salaries to be paid for a particular type of work. Thus salary maximums tend to prevent excessive payment for specified

Spread of Pay Range

THE "SPREAD" of a pay scale is the difference in amount between the minimum rate and the maximum rate of the scale. The percentage of spread is computed on the minimum rate as a base. Thus, if the minimum of a pay range is \$1,200 and the maximum \$1,500, the spread is \$300, or 25 per cent. Sometimes, under a merit increase plan involving periodic pay advancements, the term "time-spread" is used, meaning the time necessary to reach the maximum rate when the employee enters the class at the minimum rate. If this time is five years, the range is said to have a "five-year spread."

In deciding what the spread of a pay scale should be for a given class of positions the broad guiding principle is that it should fit the class. The spread for any class should be sufficient to permit adequate advancement to employees who become highly proficient in the work of the class concerned and who are not promoted to positions in higher classes. This requires consideration of (a) the relative breadth or narrowness of the classes established in the position-classification plan;⁴ (b) the degree to which the nature of the class permits or restricts the development or the individual effort of the employee in the work of the class, i.e., the time required for normal progress and for opportunity to demonstrate outstanding performance; (c) the degree of opportunity for promotion to higher classes in the same or an associated line of work, i.e., whether the class is a stepping-stone to higher classes or one which the employee is apt to make his life's work; and (d) the general level of the class in the position-classification and pay plans.

Broad classes having a relatively wide

services. Furthermore salary maximums stimulate employees to prepare for promotion, and they thus cause managers to develop and advance promising and capable workers so as to retain them." John W. Riegel, *Salary Determination* (University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1940), p. 139. See also Samuel L. H. Burk, *Bases for Sound Salary Determination*, Office Management Series No. 92 (American Management Association, New York, 1940), pp. 6, 8; and J. O. Hopwood, *Salaries, Wages and Labor Relations* (Ronald Press, New York 1937), pp. 78-79.

⁴Civil Service Assembly, *Position Classification in the Public Service*, pp. 195-205.

range of difficulty and responsibility ordinarily call for longer salary ranges than narrow classes. For example, in one jurisdiction the pay scales for Senior Vault Guard and for Senior Compensation Claims Examiner begin at the same minimum, but have spreads of 17.1 per cent and 26.8 per cent, respectively.

Some classes of positions have a greater range for the development of proficiency than do other classes: Those permitting a large increase in the value of the individual to the service as he becomes experienced in the work of the class call for wider spreads than do classes in which the nature of the work is of limited scope. Perhaps the most familiar illustrations of this point are pay scales for non-supervisory teaching positions. Wide ranges with spreads of 50 per cent to 100 per cent or more, and time-spreads of 10 to 15 years, give recognition to the opportunity for development and contribution open to workers in this profession. They also reflect the desirability of encouraging teachers to make their profession a career, notwithstanding the limited promotional opportunities within the usual public school system.⁵ Such spreads are infrequent in other branches of the public service or in private industry.⁶

In the United States postal service, the number of higher positions, mostly supervisory or administrative in character, is very much less than the number of positions involving nonsupervisory operations. Opportunities for promotion are therefore naturally rather limited, and many postal workers spend all or the greater part of their government service as a letter carrier, postal clerk, or in another occupation of comparable level. Hence, the spreads of the statutory pay ranges for the kinds of

positions that make up the bulk of the postal service are as a rule much wider than those for positions in other federal establishments. For example, the pay range for letter carriers in the city delivery service and for postal clerks at first and second class post offices consists of eleven rates (a 10-year spread), with a minimum of \$1,700 a year, a maximum of \$2,700 a year, and a spread of \$1,000, or 58.8 per cent. In addition, for such positions at first-class post offices three more rates are provided at the top of the scale, forming in the aggregate a fourteen-rate (25-year) range, with a spread of \$1,300, or 76.5 per cent.⁷

IN STATE AND LOCAL jurisdictions also, limitations of opportunity for promotion or transfer out of a given class, caused by the position structure of the service or the organization, are sometimes recognized as a reason for lengthening the spread in comparison with pay ranges for classes from which promotions to higher classes are frequently available. In most instances, this policy has been applied in the lower levels. For example, in one pay plan where the spreads are ordinarily 25 to 30 per cent; those for Clinic Attendant and for Housemaid are 57 per cent. In another pay plan, the spread for the pay range applicable to such classes as Messenger, Watchman, Custodial Worker, Elevator Operator, and Waitress is 83 per cent.⁸

Recently, the city of Chicago, in consideration of "instances of so-called dead-end positions from which there are no promotional opportunities," revised clerical salary scales so as to provide three additional rates above the then existing maximums, payable after 10, 15, and 20 years of service, respectively. In the senior clerical grade, for example, the effect was

⁵ Illustrations may be found in: Board of Education, City of New York, *Salary Schedules for Members of the Supervising and Teaching Staff* . . . Document No. 1—1932; *District of Columbia Teachers' Salary Act of 1945*, enacted July 21, 1945, Public Law No. 158, 79th Congress. See also the discussion in National Education Association, *Salary Scheduling*, March, 1946, pp. 9-10.

⁶ Ranges with too wide a spread were not favored by the National War Labor Board. An "extremely wide rate range is not a job classification rate range." National War Labor Board, General Order No. 31, August 18, 1943.

⁷ Sec. 12 (a), Act of July 6, 1945, Public Law No. 134, 79th Congress. See Robert S. Hare, "Some Aspects of the Postal Pay Act of 1945," *Personnel Administration*, February, 1946, pp. 5-8. Legislation (Public Law 386) was enacted on May 21, 1946, increasing the rates cited by \$400 per year, retroactive to January 1, 1946.

⁸ Louisiana State Department of Civil Service, *Revised Pay Plan for the Classified Civil Service for the State of Louisiana*, July 1, 1944. The pay range is \$720 to \$1,320, in ten \$60 steps.

to increase the existing spread of 15.5 per cent to 22.8 per cent for 1946 and 30.1 per cent for 1947.⁹

Occasionally, there are classes of learner or trainee positions, such as student nurse, which call for no spread at all, i.e., a single flat rate. In such cases promotional opportunities to a higher class are definitely planned as part of the training program, and the students or trainees must qualify for promotion out of the class (and thus receive a concurrent pay increase) or be separated from the learner position and usually from the service. A single rate or a short spread is applicable whenever long or continued service is inconsistent with the nature and use of the class of positions concerned.¹⁰

AN IMPORTANT POINT to observe in determining spreads according to the nature of classes is that there should be a logical relation between the spread of a pay scale and the general level of the class of positions, namely, a relation that recognizes the value of the length of the spread as a factor in creating incentives and offering rewards. For example, a spread of \$360 provides a reasonable degree of incentive for workers on simple operations where minimum salaries are around \$1,500. However, a \$360 spread has much less incentive value for professional specialists or administrators whose minimum salaries may be \$5,000 or more. Clearly, a spread of the same number of dollars does not present the same challenge or stimulation to employees in classes at differing levels. Hence, one generally accepted standard for a suitable spread is that it should be in conformity with the level of the class. This standard is administratively sound because it favors a wider spread in dollars, although the percentage spread may remain constant or decrease, as successively higher pay scales are reached for classes involving increased difficulties, higher responsibilities, longer learning periods, and greater scope of opportunity for effective contri-

butions to the service.¹¹ A scrutiny of typical pay schedules usually discloses that spreads of annual salaries vary from, say, \$240 to \$300 in the lower levels, and \$900, \$1,000, \$1,200, or more at the higher levels. Sometimes a regular pattern is followed, as, for example, when spreads of \$240, \$360, \$480, \$720, \$960, and \$1,200 are applied uniformly to successive groups of pay scales.¹²

Spreads are also influenced by the general policy or attitude of the controlling officials of the jurisdiction on the relationship of payroll costs to good personnel administration. If the policy of the jurisdiction is that no part of salary cost is to be devoted directly to incentives and rewards for good work and faithful service, flat rates or small spreads are apt to be the result. If, however, the policy is otherwise, a spread wide enough to provide material recognition of the value of the more competent employees in each class is required. In other words, so far as costs are concerned, the considerations calling for a range of pay, rather than a single rate, for each class of positions apply with equal pertinency to the question of the length of the pay ranges to be established.

Varying spreads result when the length of each pay range is determined individually so as to conform to the scope of the duties and the level of responsibility of the class to which the range applies. In practice, when executives or legislators are faced with the problem of doing this for hundreds of classes of positions, they frequently seek some formula for general guidance. Can the determination of the proper spread for a pay range be reduced to a uniform rule, to be departed from only when the nature of the class clearly warrants an exception? This question has led to the suggestion that the spreads for all classes should be expressed, at least tentatively, as a uniform percentage. Such

¹¹ In actual practice, this principle is rarely followed for the highest management and technical positions in the public service when their rates touch the pay "ceiling" established by law or custom in the jurisdiction.

¹² Colorado Civil Service Commission, *A Compensation Plan for the Classified Civil Service of the State of Colorado* (1944).

⁹ Ordinance of the City Council, approved December 28, 1945. The three additional rates were set higher for 1947 than for 1946.

¹⁰ See also the discussion in John W. Riegel, *loc. cit.*, p. 137.

a rule would make the dollar spread of each pay scale mathematically proportional to the level of difficulty and responsibility of the class to which it applied.¹³ In some cases, however, convincing reasons might exist for exceptions in order to reflect variations in scope of work or in the opportunity of an employee to contribute increasingly to the objectives of the organization without change in his position, when a given class is compared in these respects with others.

There is little evidence that the principle suggested has had much actual influence in constructing pay scales. One study made of 27 public jurisdictions showed that only six regarded it as a basic policy, one jurisdiction adopting 20 per cent, for example, and another 25 per cent. One state used a spread of 30 to 33 per cent for the lower classes, 25 per cent for intermediate classes, and 15 to 20 per cent for the higher classes.¹⁴

The pay scales for a good many jurisdictions show the effect of considerations other than the desirability of a uniform percentage of spread for the various classes. For example, the statutory pay schedules of the state of New York include three standard pay scales with a minimum rate of \$1,200 a year, but with spreads of 15, 33, and 42 per cent, for labor, custodian or domestic, and office clerical positions, respectively, at that level.¹⁵

In the federal government, the Classification Act of 1923, prior to the amendment effective July 1, 1946, contained twenty-five standard salary ranges, with

entrance salaries of \$864 to \$8,750.¹⁶ The spread of the lowest pay range was 33 per cent. The spreads of the other pay scales, except the highest three, varied from 16 to 27.5 per cent, with no discernible pattern. The spread of the three highest pay ranges, with entrance salaries of \$6,230, \$7,175, and \$8,750, were more uniform, being 13.5 per cent, 14.6 per cent, and 12 per cent, respectively.

The practices of private enterprises likewise do not indicate the acceptance of a uniform mathematical rule. In some instances spreads are as small as 5 per cent; in others, as much as 50 per cent. One industrial company has established pay ranges by (a) determining what the arithmetic mean rate for the class will be and (b) using a spread of 10 per cent above and 10 per cent below this mean rate.¹⁷ Another uses 15 per cent above and 15 per cent below.¹⁸

Industrial job evaluation experts have suggested that spreads of 20 to 35 per cent are to be preferred.¹⁹ Wider spreads than these are not generally favored in industry because of difficulties in administering or controlling the use of a large spread of pay for the same class of positions.²⁰

¹³ Ismar Baruch, "The Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945", *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1945, pp. 201-212. The Federal Employees Pay Act of 1946, enacted on May 24, 1946, effective July 1, 1946, increases the rates cited by 14 per cent or \$250, whichever is larger, except that no rate shall be increased more than 25 per cent or to a figure higher than \$10,000.

¹⁷ N. D. Hubbell, *Salary Administration Plan for Factory Supervision and Staff*, Office Management Series No. 88 (American Management Association, New York, 1939), p. 35.

¹⁸ J. R. Rue, *Techniques of Salary Administration*, Office Management Series No. 92 (American Management Association, New York, 1940), pp. 14-15.

¹⁹ C. Canby Balderston, *Salary and Wage Setting*, Institute of Management Series No. 17 (American Management Association, New York, 1936); p. 31; Samuel L. H. Burk, *loc. cit.*, p. 8; and Edward N. Hay, "Constructing Salary Scales," *Personnel Journal*, April, 1936, p. 352.

²⁰ Compare, however, J. O. Hopwood, *loc. cit.*, p. 74, where it is said that "an increase of approximately 50 per cent from the minimum rate to the maximum rate of a range is not unreasonable." Also, note the following statement: "In most companies, in order to handle all salary adjustment problems, it is desirable to have salary ranges with a 50 per cent spread from the minimums to the maximums. This 50 per cent spread should, in

¹³ "Such uniformity in the relationship of the spreads of the grades to the levels of the grades is highly desirable. It presents to all employees of all grades prospects of salary advancement in proportion to the importance of the positions they hold." U. S. Personnel Classification Board, *Closing Report of Wage and Personnel Survey*, H. Doc. No. 771, 71st Congress, 3rd session (Government Printing Office, Washington, 1931), p. 258. See also Edward H. Litchfield, "Theory and Practice in Public Service Salary Determination," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1945, p. 78.

¹⁴ J. Lyle Cunningham, "Compensation Plans for Public Employees," *The Society for the Advancement of Management Journal*, July, 1939, p. 95.

¹⁵ Sec. 40, Article 3, New York State Civil Service Law, Chap. 302, Laws of 1945.

Number and Amount of Steps

THE AMOUNT of a pay step may be generally defined as the difference between two consecutive pay rates in a pay scale. The number of pay steps in a pay scale is the number of times an employee's pay would be increased to advance him, one step at a time, from the minimum to the maximum rate. To accomplish the purpose of establishing pay ranges with suitable spreads, each spread is divided into salary increments or pay steps. For example, given a spread of \$360, several different pay scales may be constructed starting with the same minimum rate: (a) a seven-rate range with six steps of \$60 each; (b) a five-rate range with four steps of \$90; (c) a four-rate range with three steps of \$120, or (d) a three-rate range with two steps of \$180. If the steps are not to be uniform, a good many variations are possible (e.g., a six-rate range with three steps of \$60 and two steps of \$90).

The number and amount of pay steps in a pay scale and the spread of the scale are, of course, mathematically related. Given a fixed minimum rate and a fixed maximum rate, it follows that as we increase the number of steps, the smaller will be the amounts of the steps. Consequently, the establishment of pay steps requires a nice balancing between the desirability of a sufficient number of steps and the undesirability of steps which are too small in dollars. The steps should be sufficient in number to permit rewarding employees with reasonable frequency for increasingly effective service. They should also be large enough in dollars to represent substantial recognition each time they are granted.²¹ Moreover, it has been suggested that substantial salary steps will have a tendency to

encourage supervisors to refrain from casual recommendations for the granting of such steps to employees whose performance requires careful appraisal.

In practice, there is much variation. The study previously mentioned indicated that pay scales in use in 34 public jurisdictions contained from one to seven rates, i.e., flat rates to six-step ranges. In one instance, ten rates were cited. Three rates were used most frequently, and four or five almost as frequently. The reporting jurisdictions indicated a preference for five rates, or four steps.²²

The Connecticut state pay plan uses rate-ranges of five, six, seven, eight, or nine rates, depending on the class. For example, the class of Museum Caretaker has four \$60 steps; Park Foreman, five \$60 steps; Park Caretaker, six \$60 steps; Baker, seven \$60 steps; and Poultryman, eight \$60 steps.²³

The statutory annual salary scales of the state of New York are built almost entirely on a six-rate (five-step) pattern,²⁴ the increments in any one range being uniformly \$100, \$120, \$125, \$150, \$175, \$180, \$200, \$250, \$300, or \$400, depending on the class. The state of California uses increments of \$120 for classes whose minimum rate is less than \$2,400; \$180, if the minimum is between \$2,400 and \$3,600; and \$240 if the minimum is \$3,600 or more.

Of the twenty-five annual salary scales in the Federal Classification Act of 1923, as amended, seventeen have seven rates (six steps), two have six rates (five steps), and six have five rates (four steps). The steps are: \$72 in the lowest grade; \$66 up to a \$2,320 entrance level; \$110 from \$2,320 to \$4,300; \$220 for the scale having a minimum rate of \$4,300; \$210 for the scales having minimums of \$5,180 and \$6,230; and \$262.50 for the highest two scales, having entrance salaries of \$7,175 and \$8,750.²⁵

²¹ J. Lyle Cunningham, *loc. cit.*, pp. 94-95.

²² State of Connecticut Personnel Department, *Compensation Plan for the State Classified Service*, October 1, 1945.

²³ The custodian and domestic service and the labor service have four-rate (three-step) ranges.

²⁴ The U. S. Personnel Classification Board recommended in 1931 a gradual sequence of steps

turn, be broken down into three parts as follows:

(1) a probationary or training period for beginners, (2) a merit range for average employees, and (3) a special merit range for outstanding employees." Ralph W. Ells, "Wage and Salary Control Plans", *American Business*, November, 1944, p. 19. See also the same author's *Salary and Wage Administration* (McGraw-Hill, New York, 1945), pp. 35-36.

²⁵ "Executives agreed that an increase of at least 5 per cent was necessary to yield satisfaction on the part of the employee and to provide incentive for continuing effort." John W. Riegel, *loc. cit.*, p. 143.

Standard pay scales in most public jurisdictions are arithmetic sequences in which each rate is derived from the next preceding rate by adding a fixed amount, such as \$100, uniformly throughout the scale. Occasionally there is a variation in which the steps in the higher part of the scale are somewhat larger than those in the lower part, as in the range \$1,800, \$1,900, \$2,000, \$2,150, \$2,300. Based on the premise that a pay increase to recognize steadily developing experience should be larger as the employee's salary becomes larger, there is considerable logic to a method of pay-scale construction which creates larger increments at the top of the scale than at the bottom.²⁶

This principle may be uniformly applied by a scientific, although infrequently used, method. This is to design each pay scale, within its fixed minimum and maximum, as a geometric sequence in which each rate is derived from the next preceding rate by making it a fixed percentage higher. Mathematically, this is done by

as follows: \$60, \$90, \$100, \$110, \$120, \$130, \$150, \$160, \$170, \$180, \$190, \$200, \$220, \$230, \$250, \$300, and \$500. *Loc. cit.*, p. 258. The effect of the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1946, enacted May 24, 1946, is to change the series of steps stated in the text to the following: \$90, \$88, \$72, \$66, \$73.04, \$75.24, \$99.32, \$125.40, \$250.80, \$239.40, and \$299.25.

²⁶ Occasionally, instances are encountered where the reverse is the case. For example, a spread of \$50 a month may be divided into successive steps of \$15, \$15, \$10, and \$10. Board of Supervisors, City and County of San Francisco, *Salary Standardization Ordinance*, 1944-45, p. 4.

multiplying each rate by a uniform factor.²⁷

The result in practice is that, except for rounding off the computed figures, the within-scale pay increases are always the same percentage of the salary that the employee has been receiving.

Such a plan has been in effect since July 1, 1937, for positions under the jurisdiction of the Personnel Commission of the Los Angeles City Schools. The basic schedule in this instance consists of 45 five-rate ranges, each having a 25 per cent spread. Each intermediate rate of a range is derived by multiplying the next preceding rate by 1.0574, the fourth root of 1.25, and rounding off the result to the nearest whole number. For example, an illustrative scale of monthly rates is \$305, \$322, \$341, \$360, \$381.

A similar arrangement is used by a few industrial concerns.²⁸

²⁷ A formula for computing this factor is easily derived as follows: Let x be the factor, a the minimum rate of the scale, n the number of steps, and s the percentage of spread. Then the pay scale may be represented by a, ax, ax^2, \dots, ax^n . The maximum rate, ax^n , equals $a(1+s)$; hence, x^n equals $1+s$; and x , therefore, equals the n th root of $1+s$. For example, the factor necessary in a four-step (five-rate) pay scale having a 25 per cent spread is the fourth root of 1.25 or 1.0574.

²⁸ A series of 25 weekly pay ranges of six rates, constructed as geometric sequences, with a five per cent differential between each step, will be found in John A. Williams, "Job Evaluation and Salary Standardization," *Office Personnel Administration*, Office Management Series No. 84 (American Management Association, New York, 1938), p. 17. See also chart and table in J. O. Hopwood, *loc. cit.*, pp. 75-76.

Reconversion or Transformation?

. . . LOUIS J. KROEGER

TODAY'S UNIVERSAL TOPIC of conversation is "reconversion." In industry and commerce, in the arts and in the professions, we are all seeking the magic formula for returning quickly to the "normalcy" of pre-war practice. But before we go further in learning *how* to reconvert to peace-time personnel practices, we ought to question *whether* we should reconvert.

To reconvert means to return again to a former state or condition. Are we sure we want to perpetuate our pre-war practices? Can we honestly say that all or even most of the personnel practices of the decade before the war are worth the trouble of returning to them? Are we ready to confess that we have done the best we can? This writer, for one, thinks not.

We need to *transform* personnel administration into something new and vital and constructive. We need to root out the negative, hedging and expedient practices of the past, most of which have no sanction other than that of tradition. We need to build in their stead a new body of practices based on reason and dedicated to service.

As a matter of fact, a lot of good has come out of the past. The toilers in the field are entitled to great credit, from which we do not seek to detract. But we must not let this satisfaction with some of what we have done overshadow a necessary concern over much that we have not done.

We have in recent years extended the merit system significantly; we have improved staffs and financing; we have collected our principles and practices into a

usable literature; we have perfected mechanical and procedural shortcuts; and we have made some technical progress. But let's not be overly encouraged by the signs of progress. They are only relative. Knowing enough to come in out of the rain is far from being fully educated and fully civilized.

We have labored long and diligently in the face of misunderstanding, financial starvation, and inertia among our best friends, who help us only when the system is threatened by direct assault (and not always then), but who are indifferent to the subtle attacks that in a thousand different ways undermine and sap the vitality of the merit system. But we cannot afford to defend our shortcomings by pointing to our difficulties. The world of today has heard enough of excuses and explanations. It will respond more readily to a confident and constructive plan of action than it will to the old attempts to explain and defend traditional policies.

More than once this writer has wanted to take the critic's chair, only to be talked out of it by cautious colleagues who counseled, "If we let the opponents of the merit system see that we admit weaknesses, they will destroy us." It is not a realistic argument. If we are blind to our faults we will not correct them. We need to acknowledge flaws and weaknesses to be sure they are not perpetuated in the progressive building of the future.

It is not possible within the limits of one article to outline all the changes that will have to be made to bring about a new and better order of things in public personnel administration. Moreover, it would be presumptuous for one writer to attempt to lay down the charter for the future. It is the joint responsibility of all those in the field, laymen and professionals alike. Perhaps we can, however, by suggesting a few major changes, excite others to thought and action.

LOUIS J. KROEGER is a personnel and management consultant. During the war he held several important administrative posts in the Office of Price Administration. He was formerly Executive Officer of the California State Personnel Board.

This discussion will be concerned with three principal propositions:

1. That we must make fundamental changes in our use of tests.

2. That we must alter the basic nature of the relationship between the personnel agency and the operating agencies.

3. That we must achieve a clear distinction between routine and decision, and insure the subordination of the former to the latter.

Testing

THERE MUST BE a new appraisal of the place and use of testing. A test is a fine precision instrument when it is built right, and it can produce useful results when wielded by an expert. But like any other fine tool, it can produce poor results, and be ruined in the process, in the fumbling hands of an amateur.

We use our tests in the wrong way. We use them too often as a sole measure. We carry their results to refinements of hundredths of one per cent, when they contain factors of error many times that magnitude. A test is like a blood count or an X-ray picture. It reveals certain facts. But those facts have to be combined with other factors of case history and measures of demonstrated and potential ability in order to arrive at an accurate diagnosis and prognosis. We should work toward the day when the test will not be virtually an end in itself, followed only by the mechanical compilation of an eligible list, but instead will be used by qualified diagnosticians as part of the data considered in deciding how best, if at all, to utilize the services of a candidate.

To bring about this more intelligent use of tests requires basic changes in law and procedure. In the first place, it is wasteful and illogical to continue to hold a complete and separate examination for each class of positions. If, for example, we require the ability to operate a typewriter at 50 words a minute as one of the conditions of employment in each of six different classes, we ought not waste the time of candidate, tester, scorer and equipment to test the same candidate on the same re-

quirement six different times if she happens to seek eligibility for all six classes. Why not establish the applicant's speed by one test, and having made it a matter of record, use the record on every subsequent occasion? And the same method could apply with equal logic to all the intelligences and aptitudes, knowledges, skills and abilities which combine to constitute the requirements for all classes of positions.

In other words we ought to announce examinations for specific qualities, not for classes of employment. Our records should no longer be in the form of eligible lists for classes, but instead should show each individual's score in all the qualities for which he submits himself for testing. These records should be on punch cards or in some other readily sortable form, so that when a vacancy occurs in a given class we can quickly select all those who have the combination of qualities required by that class.

Under such a plan there is no longer a problem of "passing" or "failing" in an examination for a class. Each candidate merely has a score on each of many qualities. There are no eligible lists in the old sense, hence no problem of informing candidates from time to time as to their relative standing. Since there are no fixed eligible lists, there is no fixed term during which we must needs be content with the body of candidates who presented themselves on a given date. The list is always open. We can gain advantage quickly of every favorable change in the employment market.

This plan would cause the passing of the old idea that we must restrict entrance to the service in part by arbitrary patterns of education and experience. In war industry, in the armed services, and under the relaxed regulations of our own agencies, we have seen in the last four years thousands of examples of individuals taking jobs for which they had no prior experience, and in a high majority of cases succeeding. With careful analysis of the true basic qualities required, with realistic testing for those qualities, and with training in job procedures, this degree of

success can be made high enough to justify abandoning old restrictions.

PROJECTING THE same idea one step further, we might question why personnel agencies should not recognize the results of each other's tests. If the candidate presents a valid evidence of having typed at 50 words a minute at the city hall, why should it not be accepted at the courthouse across the street? If the county government wants to test the candidate on qualities not covered by the city, so be it; but for those things which they require in common, it is about time we adopt some reciprocal agreements. In fact, under such agreements several jurisdictions could each select fields in which to specialize. We recognize a valid driver's license, or a permit to practice law or medicine or plumbing, so why not do so too for the practice of typing and the exercise of other skills and abilities as well?

We need feel no remorse at slaughtering the sacred cow of a rigidly competitive examination that leads to an eligible list established for a fixed term. Clearly this is one of those provisions of law that may deliver us from evil, but will never do us any real good. Our goal is to get qualified people into the service, not merely to keep out the bad ones. In the limited time that we now hang an examination notice in obscure public places, the best qualified candidate may not happen by, or if sought out by positive recruiting, may not be available. If they do become available later why not add them to the pool? The wartime creature known as the "continuous examination" or the "open register" ought definitely to be preserved in principle in the postwar world—but bolstered with considerably better and an altogether different kind of testing.

Nor should we feel sad about abandoning that time-honored practice of certifying three names to fill a vacancy. What basis in logic or science does it have? What merit is there in the number three? It is traditional, it is a low number, it is an odd number, and it is highly regarded among the mystics—but in none of these

is there any relation to the realities of filling a position.

Let's either certify the one person who has the highest combined score for the qualities called for in a particular class, or certify all those who possess such qualities. One name can be justified on the grounds that the findings of the tests are the best guide we have to the relative worth of the candidates, and that appointing officers' preferences are usually based on superficial considerations. The use of the whole list can be justified on the grounds that everyone on it is qualified, that our tests are not yet good enough to arrange candidates in strict order, and that from the field of qualified candidates the appointing officer should have a free choice to suit his preference.

Relations with Operating Departments

TO GET A PROPER working relationship between the personnel agency and the operating departments is partly a matter of changing our laws and partly a matter of changing our attitude. There must be a general overhauling of civil service laws, casting out old concepts and throwing off protective and negative restrictions, and replacing them with constructive and technically and administratively sound provisions. We based our laws years ago on the necessary reform of thwarting the spoilsmen. Now we have to look ahead to new goals.

Thwarting the spoilsman is an honorable goal, and one toward which we have marched a long way, but thwarting the spoilsman by negative attack is not enough. When we have thrown the rascals out we have to offer something constructive in their place. Politics cannot be eliminated by a civil service law any more than disease can be outlawed by quarantine regulations. Either is at best but one of the steps toward control. In both cases it takes positive action, convincing argument, and sound technique to create a healthy condition.

A civil service law emphasizing constructive personnel management is not only desirable in itself, but it also, as a by-

product, takes the spoilsman out of play. His methods are not just bad politics; they are bad management as well. When good management is provided, bad politics has to go. The point is that bad politics bring bad management, but cleaning up the politics does not automatically also improve the management. It takes further effort. It is the failure to take that additional step, the failure to rise above the mechanical administration of restrictive regulations, that is a significant failure in our work of the past. It discolors our entire relationship with those whom we would serve.

We ought to transform our laws from involved codes of "thou shalt nots" into broad, comprehensive statements of objectives and grants of authority to do what sound personnel management requires. In this effort we must enlist the active support of all thinking people, both inside and outside the government. We must join forces with department heads and political leaders to gain a type of legislation in which we can all have confidence, and which can contribute to the work of the operating departments, rather than hindering it.

From the standpoint of attitude we need to share our knowledge and experience far more freely with the departmental people. Classification, for example, seems to fascinate all who touch it. Everyone is a self-proclaimed expert at it. Yet the professional classifier, rather than making the most of this interest, hovers jealously over the knowledge he has and the standards he uses. He throws an aura of mystery around his methods and clothes his meaning in a jargon that defies all understanding. The result is a misunderstanding of the place and purpose of classification by most operating people. The consequence of that misunderstanding is distrust.

The function of classification, after all, is to arrange positions in groups in the interests of just treatment and ease in handling personnel transactions. The department head and the employees possess all the facts on which this arrangement depends. They cannot present the facts properly unless they have some under-

standing of the setting in which they are to be used. Our standards and methods, therefore, must be reduced to the simplest terms and explained to as many people as possible, not built up to the maximum of complexity and surrounded with the greatest of secrecy. Why is it that the finer the hair we want to split, the bigger the word we hit it with?

It might be added, incidentally, that we need to integrate our own personnel functions more closely—in other words, improve our own internal relations—if we are to find a better bond of understanding between the personnelists and the departments. Continuing with classification as the example, surely we must recognize that it is not an end in itself, but only the means to such ends as better recruiting, testing, placement, pay administration, service ratings and training. Yet there are agencies where classifier and examiner scarcely have a speaking acquaintance, and then only socially. How can an agency which presents a diverse front to those it serves hope to serve them effectively? May the light of transformation shine brightly here!

THE KIND OF NEW RELATIONSHIP we seek cannot be found unless we do something about personnel agency staffing. The personnel staff of the future needs to be better trained, and it needs to be infinitely wiser in the problems of the operating departments. Personnel management calls for a lot of common sense, but a lot of common sense alone does not qualify for responsible personnel work. There are the beginnings of basic principles and right practices that ought to be employed in every agency. There is a body of past experience through which errors have been made, evaluated, and catalogued as a guide to the future. There are attitudes and policies and fundamental lines of reasoning that ought to prevail everywhere. All of these are acquired best at the hands of experienced practitioners and competent teachers. The alleged personnel experience acquired by many during the war is merely clerical, and that of others has been only in applying the makeshifts of wartime practice.

Both need to be supplemented by technical training if the agency is to impress its clientele with its ability to cope with their problems.

The need to recognize operating problems is critical. No amount of satisfaction with their own work on the part of the personnel agencies can alter the fact that many operating people feel they must do their job in spite of and not with the help of the personnel staff.

The writer is frankly alarmed at the widespread opposition to all orderly personnel management that is growing out of some operating experiences with personnel offices. As one who has toiled long for the cause of personnel administration while a practitioner in that field, but who spent the war years in a major operating capacity, the writer can understand this attitude toward personnel agencies, and can point to some experiences which tempt him to sympathize with it.

Too many personnelists are purists, and too many are naïve. They put consistency of practice and adherence to theory and control above all concepts of helpful service. To be sure, the personnel administrator is faced with difficult choices. He deals with operating officials who often are uncooperative, sometimes are hostile, occasionally are dishonest, and always are preoccupied with their own problems. If he deviates from standards once, when circumstances clearly warrant, he may be confronted by an embarrassing precedent when circumstances are altogether different.

The operating official has his problems and responsibilities too. He has deadlines to meet in many matters of public concern. He is more often than not a conscientious official who is doing his level best to render good and faithful service. Depending largely on his first few experiences with it, he regards the personnel agency either as an aid to him, a necessary evil, or an unmitigated nuisance. But even the friendliest line official cannot but be exasperated at times by the delay and misunderstanding in treating his personnel problems.

THE PERSONNEL AGENCY exists primarily to be of service. If it cannot improve a given personnel situation, it ought to keep out of the way. It does no good to fondle every case just for the fun of it. If there is a service to be rendered it ought to be good enough and obvious enough to be apparent to the department head. He needs to be shown how the personnel agency can help him, not just blandly told that it will.

Blind adherence to ritual and stubborn insistence on protocol and formula have only driven department heads to invent new dodges for meeting the form while avoiding the substance of personnel regulations. The personnel agency too often lolls back, tongue in cheek, accepting the form alone, when it should be out winning adherence to the substance too.

The truly important considerations in every personnel transaction are whether it results in better service and whether it does substantial justice to all concerned. All procedures and regulations and every administrative and technical decision should be tested against those standards. When we classify a job to suit our own ideas of departmental organization or function, when we refuse or fail to recognize a new problem, when we are indifferent to the need for haste, when we substitute prejudice for fact, when we insist on ritual for ritual's sake (when it can only delay, not change the final result)—when we indulge in these we are demonstrating the peculiar talent of the personnelist for missing the point and purpose of his job.

Let us, in brief, train personnel staffs in the techniques of their own field, but in doing so, train them as well in the problems and point of view of the departmental people. Six months of experience in an operating job, with responsibility for a given major result in that time in a matter of grave public concern, would bathe many a staff member in a new glow of sympathy and reason.

Routine vs. Decision

THE PERSONNEL PROGRAM of the future must shift emphasis from routine to de-

cision. Nowadays our records and routines are our masters. . Our principal advances in recent years have been in the mechanical, the routine, and the ritualistic. We can now score tests electrically instead of manually; but we have done less to improve the relevance and validity of what we score. We can put records and payrolls on punch cards and whirl them through at a dizzy pace; but we still fall short in the policies and decisions that create the record.

We confuse procedure with policy. In almost every agency clerks make important policy decisions as incidents of record keeping, while administrators and technicians dilute their specialities with large doses of paper pushing.

There are two distinct steps in a personnel transaction. The first is to decide what shall be done. In this the best administrative and technical talent must participate. The second step is to carry out the decision. This is the task of the administrative or clerical staff, and should never under any circumstances be permitted to condition, control or delay the decision, nor to interfere with its immediate effect.

Subordinating clerical routines to their proper place requires careful analysis and the courage to upset tradition and to meet deep-seated opposition. Forms and procedures need extensive overhauling. We must not rest until there is no more work involved in transferring an employee than there is in transferring between streetcars. Too many procedures have no excuse for being except to continue the employment of those who manipulate them; too many rest on historic origins that have long since vanished. If every operation is challenged with a simple "Why?", and if the answer is required to be really convincing, the resulting pile of pruned administrative underbrush will be impressive.

Additional Suggestions

WITHOUT ATTEMPTING to repeat the arguments for them, or to add new ones, it might be well to point out briefly some other changes in our traditional ways of

doing things which were gaining recognition as we entered the war, and which deserve a place in the transformed personnel world.

1. We need a common language. We need to learn a lot yet before we have a complete body of fixed principles and right practices which constitute a science of public personnel administration. The search for these principles and practices can be expedited by encouraging a certain variety of methods, so that a number of ways of doing the same thing can be tried out at the same time—*provided we work toward common goals and talk the same language so that we can exchange information and experiences on a common ground of understanding.*

More than one committee has toiled to give us a standard terminology. All have failed, not so much because they have not been competent, but because each of us has been too enamoured of his own lingo to be willing to shift to something universal. We ought to make one more run at it, with a firm resolve to surrender local interest to the need for an understandable medium of exchange.

2. We should work more seriously toward more uniform classification of positions. Since a sound classification plan is the key to the success of many other personnel operations, a degree of uniformity is essential to the intelligent exchange of information and services. We cannot achieve complete uniformity for reasons of obvious local differences, but it would nonetheless be to the distinct advantage of all agencies to work in the direction of uniformity rather than away from it.

3. With classification plans that had enough in common that everyone could understand them, the way would be clear for some of the other "musts" of a transformed personnel administration. For example, testing techniques could be improved faster with a freer exchange of material and data on results. The exchange is now often meaningless because there is no common basis to which to reduce the meaning of our experience.

4. With the closer coordination of classi-

fication plans we could begin, too, to look to a truer career service, in which employees could transfer between jurisdictions.

5. We need to cooperate more fully in pay administration. The public service, as usual, is in some places failing to meet the rising level of pay, and in others, in ill-judged attempts to keep up with the trend, is going too fast and too far. Though purely local factors are important in setting pay rates, it is also important to know what is going on in other places. Thousands of dollars are now being spent in spasmodic and thoroughly unsatisfactory surveys to find out what the other fellow is doing, only to have the results go stale before the ink is dry on the final report. We need machinery for the continuous exchange of data.

6. In service ratings we need to do three things: (a) overcome fear and opposition which has been fed by inept practices of the past; (b) build the conviction among ourselves and among those we serve that a true merit system requires discovering and rewarding merit throughout employment, not just at the time of hiring; and (c) develop systems of rating that are realistically fitted to each class of employment and that pierce the mysteries of intangible human qualities, reducing them to objectively measureable factors.

7. Tenure provisions are due for an overhauling. Turnover is too high among the kind of people we should keep, and too low among those we should be rid of. The latter contributes to the former. The better employee often cannot stomach the frustration which the poorer one creates and on which he thrives. Most civil service laws do not make dismissals too difficult, but for a host of reasons the idea is abroad that they do. The effect then is that they do, since most of us, being human, are governed by what we believe and not by what is so.

The protection of those in service must be secondary to the assurance that all who enter the service are well qualified. If we can be sure that no appointing officer can fill any position except from a list of

eligible candidates, we have destroyed the greatest incentive to improper removal, and can scrap some of the procedural protections surrounding tenure.

8. We ought to stop relying so heavily on the trick provisions of law which hedge the appointment of personnel boards and administrators to avoid political control. Not one of these provisions had been an actual protection when the politicians really wanted to move in. Protection of the merit principle comes from aroused public support and intelligent guidance of political leadership, not from trick formulas.

Wartime Practices

AS WE BEGIN OUR process of transformation we should examine carefully our wartime practices. Mostly they are expediciencies and poor substitutes for sound techniques. They were born of necessity, of desperation, and sometimes of a touch of hysteria. They were partly a means of getting the lumbering old personnel machinery out of the way of wartime administrative needs, and partly devices for keeping a toe-hold in a fiercely competitive labor market.

The war brought into sharp focus the need for high quality public servants and for advanced methods of personnel management. Fortunately we attracted the people we needed; but unfortunately, we did so without improvement in our techniques. The people responded to patriotic urges, often directed from outside the personnel agency. They stayed on the job out of a sense of duty, not because their interests as employees were always well served. To be sure, we streamlined our procedures; but whereas streamlining ordinarily takes off the rough edges to reduce wind resistance, much of our wartime practice seems to have consisted of throwing away the engine and the wheels and leaving the remaining carcass to the buffeting of the winds.

Not all wartime practices were bad. Sometimes desperation drove us to a happy solution, such as continuous examinations, better training, and more counseling, all of

which ought to be preserved. They only emphasize all the more that we should not reconvert blindly. To do so might lose valuable gains forced on us during the last four dark years.

Conclusion

IT WOULD SEEM, in summary, that there is much that is not as it ought to be. There are unlimited opportunities for pioneering achievements in public personnel administration for those who, like all true

pioneers, will assert their discontent with things as they are and push on to new frontiers. Let's stop fighting defensive battles over the ways of the present and turn to constructive building for the future. Let's not defend our present methods by pointing out that they are no worse than conditions elsewhere. No progress ever came out of such an attitude. We need instead to raise our sights, develop new and constructive principles and practices, and let others follow where we lead.

The International Civil Service

WILLIAM C. ROGERS

THE SCOPE of the new international civil service in terms of the numbers to be employed in the United Nations secretariat for the next few years was sketched at around 2,500 employees. It was estimated that the specialized agencies would employ another 3,000.

There has been little precedent for an international civil service of this size. Although the United States belongs to some 160 international organizations, they are mostly international bureaus which employ a very small number of personnel. The League of Nations and the International Labour Office together had a maximum of 1,000 to 1,200 employees.

UNRRA is a relatively large organization but it is of a temporary and emergency nature. It employs some 12,000 "Class A" employees. They are members of the secretariat or recruited from countries other than those in which they are working. From fifty to sixty thousand additional personnel, who are residents of the countries where they work, compose the rest of the staff.

It was pointed out that international organizations are engaged in the discussion and determination of policy, rather than in the execution of programs. The national members generally have the latter

responsibility. This fact limits the number of international administrative personnel. In the future, however, a trusteeship council and other United Nations organizations may develop executive functions to a higher degree.

It was agreed that there will be numerous technical people of a great variety needed in the United Nations Organizations but the mass of the positions will be for very high-grade clerical personnel of whom many will have language skills. The number of important administrative positions will be quite limited. The technical people will be required primarily for the specialized organizations rather than for the United Nations secretariat itself, which will probably not engage directly in functional programs.

A former member of the League of Nations staff stated that he hoped that the United Nations would be staffed generously and that the constant pressure for economy which was so harmful to League work would be avoided. He was not inclined to overrate the language qualifications for professional and technical personnel, because if high-quality clerical people were available to translate and edit, top personnel could be recruited more for general ability. He did not think that language facility was related to general ability, pointing out that it is something which can be learned, which is not true of general ability. He expressed anxiety about the secretariat's location in the United States. He believed the American desire for frequent changes of jobs would result in an undesirable turnover in personnel in the early stages of the organization. He thought that it would be perfectly all right, however, to bring in temporary consultants from time to time.

Another panel member stated that there would probably be for Americans a maximum of 1,000 jobs, including custodial and clerical positions in international ad-

WILLIAM C. ROGERS is Secretary of the Personnel Exchange, Public Administration Clearing House.

Editor's Note. This article is a summary of a panel discussion that took place at the Annual Conference of the American Society for Public Administration in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on March 27, 1946. Panel members were as follows: *Chairman*, Rowland Egger, University of Virginia; *Participants*, Joseph P. Harris, University of California; Egon Ranshofen-Wertheimer, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; Alvin Roseman, U. S. Bureau of the Budget; Adrian Pelt, Assistant Secretary-General, United Nations; Donald C. Stone, U. S. Bureau of the Budget; *Secretary*, William C. Rogers, Public Administration Clearing House.

ministration, and that only a small part of that number would be for people trained in international administration or international relations. He was afraid that college students in these fields would be greatly disappointed when they discovered this fact, but that the sooner they knew it the better. It was stated by one official that 500 of the 2,000 persons who are to be in the secretariat would be maintenance and custodial personnel recruited in the United States and 200 would be clerical, also probably recruited here. This would leave 1,300 professional and administrative jobs to be divided by potentially 60 nations. Although the devastated countries could not perhaps supply their share of approximately 20 people, no more than twice or two and a half times that number would be allotted to the largest countries. This would mean that only a maximum of 50 professional positions would be available for United States citizens. He explained that it was too expensive to hire maintenance people from abroad, even though the salaries paid in the United States for such work might be equal to that of bureau chiefs in foreign countries. He stressed the need of continuity of position, particularly in the middle ranks of the secretariat.

A student of personnel administration asked from the floor to place a bet, on the basis of his knowledge of how government agencies grew, that the United Nations secretariat would be double the size of the estimates given. (He received no takers.)

Personnel Management in the Administrative Structure

THE CHAIRMAN introduced the question of how the secretariat could be best organized to carry out its personnel program. Due consideration must be given to geographical factors in the selection of personnel, and yet an efficient staff must be selected. He pointed out that in the secretariat, personnel administration is one of the three management and staff functions placed in the Department of Administrative and Financial Services. These are in

contrast to the service functions, which are in the Departments of Conference and General Services and Public Information.

It was suggested that each Assistant Secretary-General may want to staff his own department before the personnel office is established. A panel member stated that in order to avoid this difficulty, it was too bad in a way that the secretariat was not organized for a year before it was required to function. He thought that it would be very foolish for an undersecretary to hire many people before consulting the personnel office, because he would be bound to pay for it later if he got poor personnel. The personnel office would be much better able to find capable personnel because of its connections with national governments. He pointed out that some governments have formalized their relations with the United Nations personnel office. Australia has a national committee and has asked the Secretary-General to consult with it in order to find good people from Australia. He thought this was an excellent arrangement if the national committees did not degenerate into pressure groups. The speaker was asked if these committees would receive broad advice from their own countries. He replied that the Dutch Committee is broadly representative through over one hundred individuals. He thought that when the Secretary-General asked for help in finding people, the national committees could be extremely helpful.

The chairman at this point set down two principles which had been evolved in the discussion: (1) an appointing official would have no protection in the case of unwise appointments until a personnel system had been established; and (2) the best protection against competing candidates is such a system. He thought that the system should be set up immediately. The personnel office should then make contacts with accredited national committees. He did not believe that the Secretary-General had stayed on top of the problem in the League of Nations, but hoped that the Secretary-General of the United Nations could do so.

The Role of the General Assembly

THE CHAIRMAN then raised the question of the role of the Assembly in the personnel functions of the United Nations. A participant said that any "supervisory commission" would have a difficult time getting the power that such a body had in the League because of the changes that had been made in the new international structure. He thought the real danger was from nations pushing a national ideology in their sending of individuals for the secretariat. The danger was not from nepotism or from the Assembly, because members of the Assembly would tend to balance themselves off one against the other. He referred specifically to the difficulties with the Germans, Italians and Japanese in the League of Nations secretariat.

It was pointed out by one of the panel members that the Civil Service Commission of the United Nations would be appointed by the Secretary-General, not by the Assembly. Another member of the panel stated that having a high quality Secretary-General and top-notch assistants was the paramount factor in good personnel administration.

Returning to an earlier topic, a member of the panel stated that an administrator has protection in personnel matters to the degree that he had a system for setting up qualifications for a position. He said that if an individual had to go through such a mill, which provides for systematic analysis of the job and of the person, the administrator gets a great deal of protection from pressure. The system should provide for getting names of qualified individuals and for sifting and evaluating their qualifications. It was suggested that the public should be made familiar with this system in order to get support for it from public opinion.

It was hoped that a member of the Secretary-General's staff would have meetings with the heads of specialized agencies on personnel problems. The term "civil service" was objected to because the connotation in America carries the idea of administrative powers. The speaker thought an international civil service commission

could see that personal history records got around between the United Nations and the specialized agencies, and that use be made of lists only partially used by one organization or another. He also thought money could be saved by giving common examinations for like positions and by co-operative investigations which would otherwise be very difficult on an international scale. He further believed that the international civil service should have supervision over this work which would be mainly of a fact-finding and interpretative nature.

A panel member expressed the view that the coordination of personnel matters should be at the staff level and on a day-to-day basis. Investigation, examinations, etc., should be part of regular operations. He said that it was wise to have the assembly use the commission to review the general personnel picture for it, but not to make selections of personnel. The civil service commission should advise on methods of improving recruitment processes, and he hoped it would look into other matters too. The agencies should carry on the actual operations.

Another member thought it would be dangerous politically to have the Commission take a hand in appointments. It should be left to the agencies to complete their staffs by themselves. It was questioned whether the United Nations secretariat should do the whole personnel administration job. It was thought the civil service commission should provide certain services for all the organizations but that the different locations made a single personnel administration impossible. Another member of the panel agreed but thought that the specialized agencies should be consulted in appointments to the commission.

The Standardization of Procedures

THE CHAIRMAN questioned whether the job specifications and job analyses set up in the various organizations would make it possible to exchange information. He did think, though, that the Preparatory Commission had set up such a good system that the specialized agencies would tend

to copy it. This would make standardization more feasible. He also thought geographical location was a very important factor in the matter of cooperation.

A member of the audience expressed the view that administrators should press for devices of administration which maintain the vitality and integrity of the executive function. This was to him the crucial problem. It was also stated that pressure should be exerted for common administrative measures among the specialized agencies and the United Nations.

A panel member thought that a special committee should be established and headed by a United Nations representative to set up common staff rules, classifications, procedures, and recruitment processes, and eventually to establish a system for making records available, exchanging examinations, etc. He thought the Secretary-General must have the final power in personnel matters because he would have the eventual responsibility. He held that the civil service commission should be an advisory group. A contributor from the floor said he hoped the nations would take to the idea of the merit system, but that we must modify our idea of the merit system to recognize the geographical formula. He thought the civil service commission should be a staff agency and not superimposed on the United Nations. He wanted an international agency not geared to national aims, but which would develop a compromise between the merit principle and the geographical idea.

Classification and Compensation

THE CHAIRMAN stated that a system was needed which would differentiate between positions and yet meet the needs of protocol and diplomacy. A member of the panel said he had objected to the system of horizontal classes set up in the League of Nations, which was borrowed from the British civil service. He pointed out that the United Nations had adopted a single-class plan and although some individuals would get privileges and immunities, they would cut through the whole class according to their duties. Certain individuals holding

diplomatic posts would need titles. The plan differs from others he had seen and it is not a grading system where positions are thrown into grades. It does recognize the relative responsibilities and the different kinds of activities carried on.

A member of the panel thought that there would be too rapid a turnover because the many grades would stimulate vocational unrest. He thought that there would be one advantage in having several classes. This system would increase the chance that a person, once in a broad class, would be willing to stay at his job. Another member of the panel said that UNRRA had steered between the narrow United States and the broad British policy. The problem of equal pay for equal work, taking account of travel and varying tax systems, was given considerable attention. It was stressed that there would be a need for national tax exemption, because otherwise one state would in effect, be subsidized by other states. This rather than the feudal idea of privilege is the real argument for tax immunities. It is impossible to establish the principle of equal pay for equal work unless all personnel pay taxes according to the same scale. However, the population in the locality of the secretariat which does pay an income tax might develop an antagonism to the "privileged" tax-free members of the secretariat. The problem has not been solved. It has been suggested that an income tax be levied by the United Nations. The Director-General has already ordered his staff to work out a "staff contribution" scheme. It has been suggested that the United States income tax scale be adopted. The money collected would go into the General Fund of the United Nations. UNRRA had serious difficulty with this problem because it paid non-Greeks in Greece, for instance, more per-diem than most Greeks were paid in salary. UNRRA attempted to pay according to national scales because of the temporary nature of the agency.

The question of the extent to which the secretariat influences policy was asked from the floor. One answer given was that

the better an international civil servant understands his job, the more he will influence the national representatives who make most of the final political decisions. If a committee secretary shows he is well on top of his subject and sees it objectively it is quite likely the committee will ask him to "make a draft." Another remark was that in the United States in recent years it has become the custom for secretaries of decision-making bodies to influence and contribute to discussions. This is in contrast to the complete anonymity of the League officials. Another member commented that there is always a danger that one national member of a committee will give too much support to an official which usually results in another country reacting as a checking influence.

Summary

THE SIZE of the international civil service will be limited to around 6,000 personnel for the next few years. The clerical and custodial employees will be recruited from the local residents. The number of professional and administrative personnel will be small in comparison with national governments, and each nation will contribute only a few individuals to the total staff.

A key problem will be to maintain the merit principle while giving regard to the geographical distribution called for in the United Nations Charter. It was agreed that all appointments should be made through the personnel office, whose system would protect the administrator in his final choice. The personnel office would deal with national committees which, it is hoped, will suggest well qualified candidates without becoming pressure groups. The proposed international civil service commission should be an advisory body rather than an operating agency in the opinion of most of the participants. The problem of building and maintaining common personnel practices among the United Nations agencies was discussed, and it was hoped that the United Nations would take the leadership in setting standards and procedures. Immunity from taxation should be accorded to international civil servants to prevent one nation from, in effect, paying money into the treasury of another country. Staff contributions approximating the amount of local income taxes, however, would prevent the international employees from having a privileged position.

Exception from Competition

The Ohio civil service law provides, as do most civil service laws, specified exceptions from competitive examination by placing certain positions for which examination is deemed to be impracticable in the unclassified service. Paragraph 8 of Section 486.8 of the Ohio General Code permits the exemption from examination, among other positions of

" . . . two secretaries, assistants or clerks and one personal stenographer for other elective officers and each of the principal appointive executive officers, boards or commissions, except civil service commissions, authorized by law to appoint such secretary, assistant or clerk and stenographer.

Positions not specifically placed in the unclassified service under the statute fall automatically in the classified or competitive service.

The position of Director of Recreation for the city of Cincinnati had been listed for several years prior to 1931 as in the classified service of the city. In 1931 the Cincinnati Civil Service Commission held a competitive examination, established an eligible list, and certified three names to the Public Recreation Commission, which selected the plaintiff to fill the vacancy. He had been serving continuously in such position up to December, 1944, at which time the Recreation Commission adopted a resolution to the effect that it was the considered opinion of the Commission that the position of Recreation Commissioner had been improperly treated as in the classified service and that in the future it should be treated as properly in the unclassified service. A few days after adoption of the resolution the Recreation Commission discontinued the plaintiff's service as Director, effective December 31, 1944. (It should be noted that the Civil Service Commission was not called upon to reclassify the position, but that the Recreation Commission interpreted the above-cited excerpt from the General Code as excepting the position from competition, and thus placing it in the unclassified service.) The Recreation Commission

viewed the position of Director of Recreation as virtually that of secretary of the Commission and therefore within the general terms of the cited paragraph.)

The lower courts upheld the determination of the Recreation Commission that the position was not one for which competitive examination was practicable, reasoning that the position is embraced within the terms of paragraph 8 in that the position was fiduciary in character and thus one for which it was impracticable to determine merit and fitness by competitive examination. The lower appellate court, in affirming the Circuit Court's decision, also held that the resolution of the Recreation Commission declaring the Director's position to be in the unclassified service did not actually fix a new status for the position, but only gave recognition to the true legal status which had obtained since the creation of the position.

The Ohio Supreme Court reversed the decision of the lower courts, holding that the position of Director of Recreation was properly in the classified service; that the nature of the duties did not bring the position expressly within the terms of paragraph 8. The primary issue before the Supreme Court was whether the appointing authority (the Recreation Commission) might raise the question as to whether or not it was practicable to fill the position by competitive examination. The Supreme Court differed with the lower courts as to the impracticability of competitive examination for filling positions which are of a fiduciary or confidential nature, pointing out that there is no express statutory provision that prevents the merit and fitness of an applicant for such a position from being determined by competitive examination; and that such relationship did not of itself require that the position be exempted. (See *Ottinger v. State Civil Service Commission*, 240 N. Y. 435; 148 N. E. 627; *Barthelmess v. Cukor*, 231 N. Y. 435; 132 N. E. 142). The court held that the Civil Service Commission, by giving the examination and certifying the list of eligibles, and the Recreation Commission by requesting such certification and making an appointment from the list, "recognized that it was practicable to determine the merit and fitness of applicants for the position by competitive examination."

H. ELIOT KAPLAN is Executive Secretary, National Civil Service League. He is a member of the faculty of New York University, and is a practicing member of the New York Bar.

Furthermore, the years of actual service of the plaintiff before any question was raised as to the security of his tenure fortified such contention. "It might well be urged," stated the court, "that the classified service status of the plaintiff thus established by word and deed continues by every principle of justice so long as he holds the position; and surely, the defendants (Public Recreation Service Commission) cannot be heard to raise the question of impracticability as a justification for the plaintiff's removal from the classified service or for his dismissal from the position."

No doubt the Recreation Commission, the court pointed out, could have recognized the position of a "secretary" or an "assistant" and filled it as such without any examination, as authorized by paragraph 8 of the section of the Ohio law under consideration. In that event the position could have been placed in the unclassified service. This, however, the Recreation Commission did not do. The statute was merely directory and not mandatory. The position of Director of Recreation is specifically provided for by city ordinance with prescribed powers. Under such circumstances the position could hardly fall under the head of "secretary," "assistant," or "clerk," as used in the civil service statute.

The court held the dismissal of the Recreation Director as unlawful and ordered his reinstatement. (*Deering v. Hirsch*, et al, 65 N. E. [2d] 649, Ohio.)

Interjurisdictional Transfer

The New York Civil Service Law (Section 16) provides that any employee in any village or town service may be transferred to a similar position in the service of any other village or town within the same county, with the consent of both jurisdictions involved and approval of the civil service commission. In *Feeney et al v. Village of Bronxville*, et al., 58 N. Y. S. (2d) 732 (App. Div.), the petitioners who were serving as lieutenants in the Bronxville Village police department sought to restrain the village officials from appointing as chief of police through transferring one who had been serving as chief of police of the neighboring village of Dobbs Ferry. The petitioners claimed that they as disabled veterans were deprived of the right of promotion through the appointment of the transferee; that the transfer was made to avoid appointing one of the petitioners who would be entitled to preference in promotion as a disabled veteran; and that the appointment of the police chief from

another village violated a special statute (a section of the general village law) which required that higher ranks in the village police departments shall be filled by promotion from among those lower in rank.

They claimed also that any statute authorizing the transfer of a position from one village or town jurisdiction to another village or town jurisdiction violated the home-rule provisions of the state constitution in that it foisted an appointee on the local appointing authorities and thus deprived them of the untrammelled right of selection. The petitioners asserted further that under the New York state constitution, promotion must be the means of filling the position wherever practicable before any transfer may be made. The court at Special Term (55 N. Y. S. [2d] 562) held that the transfer of the police chief from Dobbs Ferry to serve as police chief of the Village of Bronxville was authorized by the civil service law and by the village law, and that the constitutional provision relating to appointments and promotions after competitive examinations wherever practicable did not preclude transfer of an employee to a similar position. The court pointed out that the term "practicability" as used in the constitution relates to practicability of examination for appointment or promotion, and not practicability as to filling the position by promotion as against a transfer. It held also that the provision of the statute relating to vacancies being filled by promotion wherever practicable was a matter of discretion with the civil service commission, based on the facts under consideration by the commission; that such statutory provision requiring promotion wherever practicable did not preclude transfer of an employee from one position to a similar position, particularly where the statute recognized transfer as an additional method of filling a vacancy.

So long as the action taken by the board of trustees of the village with the consent of the civil service commission was in conformity with the civil service law and the village law, and so long as such action was based on rational consideration and was not clearly arbitrary, the court was constrained not to interfere with the judgment and discretion of the public officials in authorizing the transfer.

City's Liability for Acts of Civil Service Commission

A novel issue was raised in a recent case (*Restaino v. City of New York*, 60 N. Y. S. (2d) 617, Sup. Ct., App. Term) as to the liability

of the city arising out of alleged neglect of the civil service commission to discover that an appointee certified by it to the police department after examination had been suffering from mental derangement some time prior to his appointment as patrolman. The plaintiff was injured when the policeman went berserk and began firing his gun in a populated section of the city. Plaintiff claimed that the city was liable, for the municipal civil service commission acted as an agent of the city when it conducted examinations for appointment to the police force, and particularly as it had investigated the prior record and character of candidates in determining their eligibility before certifying them for appointment to the police department.

The lower court, where the material facts were substantially conceded, granted judgment on the ground that the commission was neglectful in not having found, which it could have done upon more careful investigation, that the police eligible had been for some time confined in an institution for mental defectives; that the commission's failure to have discovered this record after its own investigation was a proximate cause of the injury to the plaintiff, which could have been avoided by the commission properly performing its duty.

The appellate court reversed the lower court, maintaining that the civil service commission in conducting examinations for the police force of the city was not acting as agent for the city. Moreover, in the exercise of reasonable care the commission and the city "could act on the presumption that the applicant was sane" for nothing at the time of the application or at the time of the examination justified any finding that there was any reason for the commission or the city not to act on that presumption. Reasonable conduct did not require more than what was done by the commission, particularly as no prior experience "which should have dictated further inquiry appears in the record."

Judicial Review of Removals

Occasionally the courts are apt to yield to the commendable human emotion of permitting sentiment to interfere with their judicial function and mislead them into the field of administrative discretion, rather than strict judicial responsibility. The case of *Hanoven v. Wagener, et al.*, 59 N. Y. S. (2d) 440, is an interesting case in point. The petitioner had been dismissed by the Commissioner of Public Works from his position of

supervisor of maintenance and operation. It appears from the record in the case that the petitioner had been found guilty of a charge of neglecting his duty by failing to order out the street snow plows of the city of Rochester when there had been a four-inch snowfall on the public streets, and that he had neglected to do so until such time as it was practically impossible for the street plows to clear the streets. It appears that he had been apprised by the weather bureau of an expected snow fall of such an amount as to warrant his preparing to clear the streets, and yet failed to take any measures to do so. In a *per curiam* opinion the court held that the record of the hearing before the commissioner contained sufficient evidence to support each of the charges made by the commission, and the court was constrained to sustain the dismissal, as it would ordinarily be required to do. The Court however went beyond this and referred the matter back to the department for reconsideration.

In his determination the Commissioner of Public Works stated:

A grave situation from the standpoint of public peril resulted by reason of the failure of Mr. Hanoven to have called out the snow plows earlier. Sufficient was this situation so that a public emergency was declared as a direct result of the snow clogged conditions of the city streets two days thereafter by the city manager. This situation resulted from the incompetency, misconduct and dereliction of duty on the part of Mr. Hanoven. The consequences of that incompetent dereliction of duty to the public welfare are sufficient to warrant his discharge from office.

In remitting the matter to the Commissioner of Public Works for further proceedings on the ground that the court felt that the penalty of dismissal was too harsh under the circumstances, the court made this observation:

From such last quoted statement we assume that the discipline of discharge from office was at least partly based on the conclusion of the Commissioner that the public emergency resulted directly from "the incompetency, misconduct and dereliction of duty on the part of Mr. Hanoven," the petitioner herein. The record contains no proof on which could be based a finding that the public emergency resulted from such a cause. It is a matter of common knowledge, of which the court takes judicial notice, that the emergency conditions, to which reference was made in the decision, were a part of conditions prevalent throughout a large part of New York state due to a snowfall December 11, 12 and 13, which emergency condition could not be avoided by any means within the control of Mr. Hanoven and the city of Rochester. With this conclusion on our part, it is necessary that the matter be remitted to the Commissioner of Public Works to determine what, if any, discipline or penalty should be imposed upon petitioner.

CASE NOTES

Appropriation for Public Agency Dues. A taxpayer brought a proceeding to invalidate appropriations made by the city of Chicago for dues to be paid by the city or its agencies of \$3,000 to the Illinois Municipal League, and \$3,000 to be paid to the United States Conference of Mayors. (*People ex rel Schlaefer v. Bunge Bros. Coal Co., et al*, 64 N. E. [2d] 365, Ill.) The trial court held that these appropriations were not properly for city purposes. The Illinois Supreme Court reversed, holding that so far as the payment of dues to these agencies was concerned:

These represent not appropriations to private corporations, as argued, but appropriations to the city to be used for payment of dues in these organizations by reason of the benefit to be derived from the service given by such corporations. It seems clear that the discussion, by mayors and other city officials, of problems affecting the well-being of their respective cities, and the study of conditions affecting taxpayers of municipalities, are public purposes, and moderate appropriations for these purposes are justified.

Special Policemen—Emergency Appointments. Where a civil service statute provides a method of appointing police officers in an emergency or in the absence of an eligible list, the city council has no authority to appoint special policemen when in fact such policemen are privately paid "special merchant-watchmen," even though they may be authorized to bear arms and make arrests within the city. The use of the phrase "paid police department" in the statute is intended to distinguish between members of the police force paid by the city and volunteer members of the department, so that the civil service act applies to all appointments except in the case of volunteers. Unless the paid special policeman is appointed in accordance with the civil service statute the appointment is invalid whether appointed as a regular police officer or as a special officer. (*State ex rel Crouse v. Holdren*, 36 S. E. [2d] 481, West Virginia.)

Eligible List Rejection—Exhaustion of List. A city charter empowers the city manager for good reason to reject an entire list of eligibles for appointment, and thereupon authorizes him to make temporary appointments without regard to the list. The city manager rejected the list for assistant fire chief, containing two names. The commission approved such rejection as based on good reason and authorized a temporary appointment. The court held that the determination of the city manager concurred in by the civil service commission, in the

absence of fraud or arbitrary action, was conclusive, and the court would not interfere. Where a list is rejected for good reason, the list so far as the particular vacancy is concerned is deemed to have been "exhausted," and the same situation exists as though there were no list at all. (*Higgins v. Lynch, et al*, 164 Pac. [2d] 943, Cal.)

Employee Organizations—Right of Police to Join. In *City of Jackson v. McLeod*, 24 So. (2d) 319, (Miss.), a policeman of the city of Jackson who refused to resign from a labor union after being ordered to do so by the mayor and commissioners and warned that failure to obey this order would result in dismissal, was discharged on the grounds of insubordination and acts tending to injure the public service. After a full hearing, the civil service commission affirmed the dismissal and ordered the city council to restore to service the policeman if they applied within five days for reinstatement coupled with a renouncement of their union affiliation. On appeal from the order of the commission, the Supreme Court ruled that inasmuch as the city council is elected by the people and made responsible to the people for the proper conduct of every department of the city government, the police employees must be responsible to the council and must be under its direction, free from obligation of any other allegiance whatsoever, so far as their activities as policemen are concerned.

Unions—Injunction Compelling Recognition. Patrolmen in the police department of the Galveston, Texas, Wharves, a municipal agency, became members of the National Council of Railway Patrolmen's Unions, Galveston Local. The agency is a carrier subject to the Interstate Commerce Act. A proceeding was brought in the federal court by the union to compel a municipal agency to recognize the union as a duly accredited representative of the agency's patrolmen. The Circuit Court of Appeals held that a city police officer, such as these special police officers were held to be, who takes an oath, gives a bond and obtains a certificate of appointment as such special police officer, and performs substantially similar duties as a regular policeman, although with limited authority, nevertheless, is an employee of the city, so that such employment is beyond the jurisdiction of the federal courts inasmuch as regulation by the federal government does not apply to municipal officers and employees. The injunction was denied. (*National Council of Railway Patrolmen's Unions,*

AFL v. Sealy, 152 Fed. [2d] 500. [U. S. C. C. A., 5th Cir.]

Salaries—Substantial Compliance with Ordinance. A town ordinance fixing salaries of municipal employees was held valid notwithstanding that the ordinance left a range within which a salary might be fixed without the formality of a further ordinance, and that a mass of tables and classifications comprising 32 printed pages was omitted from publication because of its tabular and columnar format was ill-designed for newspaper insertion. Where the range allowed in the ordinance was not so great as to emasculate the ordinance of its salary fixing power, the ordinance meets its statutory obligations of fixing salaries. (*McKann v. Town of Irvington*, et al., 45 Atl. [2d] 495, N. J.)

Public Officer—Reclassification—City Attorney as "Employee." A city operating under a commission form of government which has abolished all non-elective offices including that of a city attorney, may not appoint a city attorney in the guise of an "employee" in the classified civil service so as to continue him in office, particularly where the general statute fixing the qualifications and duties of the city attorney was not repealed and was therefore still applicable. The general assembly may not convert the office of city attorney into that of an employee merely by calling the city attorney by another name or designating him as an "employee," while leaving all of his qualifications and duties as those of a "public officer." (*Black et al v. Sutton*, 191 S. W. [2d] 407, Ky.)

Public Officer—Employment Distinguished—Policemen. A city ordinance provides that the police department shall consist of a chief, three captains, other officers and patrolmen as may be appointed from time to time. Unless the statute specifically designates patrolmen as "public officers" and vests in them elements of power to act independently and not subject to supervision, direction and command of superior officers, such patrolmen are not "public officers," but "employees." This is so even though the members of the police department have been vested with the duties, powers, privileges and liabilities of constables. There is no final sovereignty in a constable any more than in a patrolman. (*Heffernan v. City of Janesville*, 21 N. W. [2d] 651, Wis.)

Scope of Civil Service Rules—Paid Driver in Volunteer Fire Company. Where a paid driver in a volunteer fire company which is

part of the fire department of a city was not appointed by a city officer nor removable by such officer, he is not an employee of the city within the terms of the civil service law, even though the city owned and maintained the fire apparatus, owned or leased the fire stations, and made annual appropriations to the volunteer fire company. Nor does the fact that the workmen's compensation act made such members of the volunteer fire companies "employees" for all purposes of the compensation act, bring them within the provisions of the civil service act. (*Steffy v. City of Reading*, et al, 46 Atl. [2d] 184, Pa.)

Political Activity—Removal. The Miami, Florida, city charter does not define specifically what constitutes "taking part in a political campaign." The court held, therefore, that a mere offer by a civil service employee, a member of the police force, to contribute to a campaign fund, which offer was rejected, does not constitute taking part in a political campaign so as to warrant his dismissal. The court also held that where a member of the police force had been promoted to a different or higher position which necessitated approval of his past conduct, he was not subject to dismissal for offenses committed during his employment in the former position from which he had been advanced. "No rule is better settled under our democratic theory," stated the court, "than this: when one is re-elected or reappointed to an office or position he is not subject to removal for offenses previously committed." (*sic*) (*Rosenfelder et al v. Hutloe*, 24 So. [2d] 108, Fla.)

Salaries—Retroactive Increases. The city council of New Bedford, Massachusetts, adopted an ordinance increasing salaries of city employees to take effect January 1, 1945. The ordinance, however, did not become effective until January 11, 1945, over the mayor's veto. It was not, therefore, held to be retroactive so as to include the period from January 1 to January 11, during which time employees had worked at lower rates than in force. The city could not give its employees the benefit of the increase from January 1 to January 11, for to do so would mean that the city would make a gratuity to its employees for work already performed. It was held, however, that the mayor was required to include in the annual budget a sufficient sum to pay the increased salaries from January 11 to the end of the year. (*James et al v. Mayor of New Bedford*, et al., 64 N. E. [2d] 638, Mass.)

Lay-Offs—Per-Diem Employees. The New York city civil service law provides that employees may be laid off for lack of work or appropriation, and that such lay-off is to be on a seniority basis among employees serving within the grade of position affected. Bridge painters employed on a per-diem basis who were not given work on three specified rainy days not suitable for bridge painting, were held not entitled to pay for such days nor entitled to be assigned work of a different character on such days merely because other bridge painters in the same classification but junior in seniority were employed on a per annum basis and assigned such other work. The seniority law is not applicable in such instances. (*Estes et al v. City of New York*, et al, 60 N. Y. S. [2d] 8.)

Lay-Offs—City-Wide Basis. Where work in a municipal division of public welfare had diminished to the point where a decrease in the number of employees was justified for reasons of economy, and the city had the right to demote or place the surplus employees on leaves of absence for reasons of economy, the employees could be laid off or reduced in rank without making a survey of the entire city to determine whether any position within the employee's qualifications was occupied by a person junior in point of service to said employee. The lay-offs were not invalidated by the fact that certain employees of the department were wrongfully performing duties not embraced within the titles of their positions. (*Kraibuehler et al v. Civil Service Commission*, et al., 46 Atl. [2d] 89, N. J.)

Removals

Scope of "State Service." The New Jersey Court of Errors and Appeals reversed the determination of the lower court in *Brickett v. Lagay*, et al, 43 Atl. (2d) 510, reviewed in the January, 1946 issue of *Public Personnel Review*, and held that employees of the Passaic Valley Sewerage Commission are not employees in the "state service" within the terms of the civil service law. The Sewerage Commission is an agency of the state performing public functions, although not a municipal corporation. It was held that the removal provision of the civil service law did not apply to its employees inasmuch as the statute gave the commissioners the power to remove its employees "at pleasure;" and because the act establishing the Sewerage Commission had always been construed administratively as denying the category of "state employees" to

employees of the Commission, particularly as they did not receive any salary from the state, a county, or municipality. The Commission, therefore, did not come within the terms of the statute "under the government of this state." (*Brickett v. Lagay*, 45 Atl. [2d] 804, N. J.)

Reduction in Force. The city charter of Tulsa, Oklahoma, providing that all city policemen shall hold their positions during good behavior and shall not be removed except for cause, does not prevent the city from reducing the number of its policemen by dismissal when such reduction is necessary to keep its expenditures within the debt limit specified by the state constitution. It does not prevent thereafter the reassignment of policemen retained. (*City of Tulsa v. Sikes*, et al. 164 [2d] 863, Okla.)

Scope of Review. The review of a dismissal by a civil service commission is not in the nature of a criminal procedure, and the rules of evidence relating to criminal procedure have no application. An employee was dismissed for selling policy tickets to other employees during working hours, and the commission sustained the dismissal. Review by the commission, the court held, is, under the Detroit city charter, limited to determination of whether the employee was discharged for political reasons, or for reasons other than for the good of the service. The court sustained the dismissal. (*Martin v. Civil Service Commission*, 21 N. W. [2d] 904, Mich.)

Review by Administrative Tribunal. A city may create by charter provision a tribunal empowered to decide finally that city employees may be dismissed from the civil service, and such authority in the civil service commission does not vest it with "judicial powers" merely because its determinations were final and not reviewable by the court, so long as the statute has been complied with. (*State ex rel Schussler v. Matthiesen*, et al., 166 Pac. [2d] 839, Wash.)

Review by U. S. Supreme Court. The United States Supreme Court will not review the dismissal of a state or municipal employee. The dismissal by the state or municipality, the petitioner claimed, deprived the employee of "property rights" of office. (*Nelson v. State ex rel Quigg* [Also *Quigg v. Nelson*] Certiorari denied March 11, 1946.) The petitioner was removed as a police chief of the city of Miami for failure to enforce municipal ordinances and criminal statutes of the state of Florida

during a strike by bus drivers of the city. The Florida Supreme Court had upheld his dismissal for cause. (23 S. E. [2d] 136.) (Reviewed in the January, 1946, issue of *Public Personnel Review*.)

Evidence Sustaining Determination. In determining whether a police officer was guilty of excessive imbibing of alcoholic beverages the police commissioner and the civil service commission may properly consider testimony concerning alcohol tests made of the policeman's blood, on which a charge of intoxication was based and was part of the evidence sustaining the charge. A letter addressed by a doctor to the secretary of the commission at the request of the secretary, commenting on the inebriety of the policeman, was ordered excluded as improper evidence. (*Kirschwing et al v. Farrar*, 166 Pac. [2d] 154, Colo.)

Provisional Appointees—Veterans. Where no special provisions are made with respect to the removal of veterans who are serving as provisional employees, they have no more right to tenure than any other employees. A probationary period of service is as much applicable to veterans as it is to all other appointees. In upholding the dismissal, the court was rather impressed by the testimony of one of the appointees holding the position of assistant prosecutor, who had stated on the record: "You know, we have never been in court before. We are not supposed to do this work. We are only here as political appointees." (*Dodd, et al v. Van Riper, Atty. Gen.*, 45 Atl. [2d] 589, N. J.)

Retirement and Pensions

Disability in Line of Duty—Causal Relationship. In order to be entitled to pension benefits because of the death of a member of the retirement system resulting from injuries alleged to have been caused during performance of duty or through sickness caused by such performance, it must be shown that the death was the mediate or immediate cause of the employee's death. The existence of causal connection is a scientific question upon which resort to scientific knowledge of experts trained in such subjects must necessarily depend. (*Platt v. City of Los Angeles*, 165 Pac. [2d] 714, Cal.)

Injury in Course of Employment. As a general rule a public employee is not deemed to be serving in the "course of employment" while he is on his way to work, when he is not actually performing his duties at such time. Where, however, the agency furnishes such

employee with transportation with the express or implied understanding that the employee may use the vehicle, the employee is deemed to be actually on duty from the time he begins to use the vehicle for transportation, whether it be the vehicle supplied by the agency or the employee's own substituted for it on the same mission. (*Heaps v. Cobb*, 45 Atl. [2d] 73, Md.)

Death in Line of Duty—Direct Cause. Where a fireman had an attack of angina pectoris because his activities at the scene of the fire contributed directly to and were instrumental in producing the attack, his beneficiary is entitled to receive the pension on the basis of "death in line of duty" within the statute authorizing payment in case of death during performance of duty. The proof must show that the death was not only in line of duty, but was the result of the duty performed and not merely coincidental with it. (*Mook v. City of Lincoln*, 21 N. W. [2d] 743, Neb.)

Loss of Pension After Dismissal. A statute providing that a policeman shall be paid full salary if he is injured in performance of his duties and by reason thereof temporarily incapacitated from performing his duties, is not applicable to a policeman whose incapacity ceases to an extent that he returns to work and performs such duties as are assigned to him without interruption and is paid his regular salary, and is thereafter dismissed. (*White v. West Norriton TP*, 405 Atl. [2d] Pa.)

Contributions—Lack of Uniformity—Constitutionality. A charter provision requiring that contributions of firemen to a pension fund be made on a fixed amount each month, rather than on a percentage of earnings, does not of itself constitute want of due process, equal protection, or lack of uniformity, and is therefore constitutionally valid. Firemen in a metropolitan city constitute a reasonable classification of persons for purposes of legislation concerning them. (*Sullivan et al v. City of Omaha, Nebraska*, 21 N. W. [2d] 510, Neb.)

Loss of Pension—Misconduct. Where a police inspector was convicted after his retirement for conspiracy to violate gambling laws, the withholding of pension payments thereafter by the police commissioner was upheld on the ground that he forfeited the right to further pension payments because of his misconduct. Deductions from his salary for pension purposes created no vested right, but was rather "the taxpayers' reward given pursuant to legislative mandate for honest and efficient

service" and may, therefore, be withheld because of such misconduct. (*Van Coppenolle v. City of Detroit, et al*, 21 N. Y. [2d] 903.)

Fire Chief—Non-Member of Fund. Where a fire chief is appointed for a four-year term and is subject to dismissal at the pleasure of the mayor, he was held not to be eligible to membership in the firemen's pension fund, for he was not as a practical matter deemed to be a "member" of the fire force covered by the pension fund under the intent of the statute. (*Harrell v. City of Wabash*, 65 N. E. [2d] 494, Ind.)

Denial of Retirement in Emergency. The board of trustees of the firemen's pension fund may deny an application for retirement of a fireman because of the manpower shortage

and increased responsibility of the fire department due to wartime emergencies, even though the board permits the retirement of others whose disabilities were so substantial as to detract from their efficiency. Such distinction was a valid exercise of discretion. (*Bedwell v. Board of Trustees, Firemen's Pension Fund of City and County of Denver*, 166 Pac. [2d] 994.)

Payments Mandatory. Trustees of a pension fund may not withhold payment of a pension merely because they choose to set aside all or part of the fund for the purpose of providing for future sickness or disability of firemen. There is no implied authorization giving the board any such discretion. (*Board of Trustees etc. v. Cotton*, 167 Pac. [2d] 49, Okla.)



THE BOOKSHELF

**The Management of Your Government.**

Harold D. Smith. Introduction by Eric Johnston. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1945. 179 pp. \$2.50.

Busy as he was, as he is, and, no doubt, as he will continue to be, Director of the Budget Harold Smith took time out to make thirteen speeches about the business of government. It is these thirteen speeches that are here published as a book that somehow or other manages to make sense as it tells you how your government has been managed, or not; how it is being managed, or not; and how it ought to be managed, with no nonsense about "not." The thirteen become one, and considering the central topic, that is a fortunate bit of symbolism.—*E Pluribus Unum.*

Lacking, perforce, a schematic or systematic organization, since the pieces of it were written at different times and for different purposes, nevertheless the book so consistently reflects the considered views and the thinking habits of its author, that it serves the purpose of bringing into sharp focus the central problems of theory and of practice inherent in the concept of governmental management.

The Bureau of the Budget is the principal management arm of the Presidency and at the same time it is the principal control tool of the Congress, and Mr. Smith fails not to keep these two apparently contradictory facts in mind.

He manages also to point up sharply the fact that legislative controls or responsible executive management are but very new things in government, which is not yet everywhere free from the irresponsible absolute—which indeed but yesterday, so to say, anywhere achieved that freedom.

Taking our own country in particular, he reviews the short history of the concept of an executive budget covering the annual expenditures of the federal government which resulted in the Budget and Accounting Act of 1921, a review which leads him to a preview of what a national budget must be. The national budget must be much more than can be based on the annual receipts and expenditures of the federal government. It will include the much greater total income and outgo of the nation's consumers, of its businesses, as well as of its federal, state and local governments.

Nor will these be adequate for the understanding of how to manage the government's affairs if there is not also included the imponderables that defy expression in terms of dollars and cents, but which are a part of the hard facts to be faced by management—the social and economic and political realities which will affect the incomes and determine the expenditures of the whole nation.

Thus from the beginning of the discussion of a federal executive budget around the first decade of the Twentieth Century until the inclusion in President Truman's Message of 1946 of the discussion of "The Government's Budget and the Nation's Budget," Mr. Smith marches straight on.

Perhaps it is yet too soon to write the story of how the concept of "management" so slowly emerged into the conscious considerations of those who made our governmental decisions; of how the acceptance of that concept yet lags; of how there yet lingers the theory of self-administering legality to make the task of management more difficult. But the beginnings of this great story are to be found between the covers of this slim, too slim, book.

Management, Mr. Smith knows, and he is not afraid to say that he knows it, begins with a plan. That plan must be based upon conscious choices made after weighing all available knowledge of all pertinent factors. This Choice results in a Purpose. The Plan is that Purpose when agreed upon. To put it into effect there must be Organization (not a chart, but men and women who have the "know how"). It is the business of Organization to devise the Processes that will enable the Plan to be transmuted into a Program. A Program is but another name for a Budget.

It is these high matters that Mr. Smith has so simply discussed in these speeches here gathered in a volume for the use and the edification of those of us Americans who are sincerely concerned with the problems of the management of our business, the biggest single business on earth. As Mr. Mark Sullivan recently wrote: "The Executive Department of Government, greatly expanded recently, is now such that for a President to so organize it as to be able to supervise it is an administrative job far larger and more complex than any other in the country. Administrative jobs in

private industry do not even faintly compare."

The manner of Mr. Smith's discussion of this matter is his own and follows no particular ritual. But it does have a keynote. The first sentence in the book is this: "Management lies at the core of democratic government." The last paragraph in the book is this: "The democracies have proved that they can effectively mobilize all their resources for war. They must also prove that they can organize to solve the problems of peace. In this they will succeed only if individual freedom is blended with social responsibility. The management of democratic government must be imbued with both individual freedom and social responsibility in order to master its peacetime task."

So, it seems, Mr. Smith believes in democratic government and sees management as the main means to make democratic government work. So do I. He has said what he believes, and has said it well. Thoughtful Americans should read him.

LOUIS BROWNLOW
Chicago, Illinois

American Labor Unions. Florence Peterson.
Harper & Bros. New York, 1945. 338 pp.
\$3.00.

American Labor Unions is an excellent brief summary of union history and programs. The author disavows any claim that it is a profound book dealing with "labor problems." It is essentially a textbook on labor unions written objectively but from the viewpoint of one who recognizes that unions constitute a normal and important functional element of an industrial society. The author, who is the Director of the Industrial Relations Division of the Bureau of Labor Standards, really knows her subject, not from books, but from an opportunity to review many of the important facts necessary to an understanding of the problems about which the functions of unions revolve.

The first half of the book (Parts I and II) deals with the growth of labor organizations and their structure and internal government. These parts are of little interest to those familiar with unions but contain information which is important for the uninitiated.

The second half of the book (Parts III and IV) is a sweeping summary of union educational and beneficial activities and of union-employer relations, which is a valuable contribution to students of and participants in the labor movement in its inclusiveness and the understanding with which it is written. Much of the literature about labor unions ignores

their broad programs, outside the scope of collective bargaining, which have been of great interest and benefit to their members and a contribution to society. All of these are included in Miss Peterson's book, though necessarily treated briefly. For example, the royalty on each ton of coal recently demanded and obtained by the United Mine Workers to create a health and safety fund for miners has been publicized as a unique demand. Miss Peterson cites programs of somewhat similar objectives negotiated by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union with their respective employer groups in industries much less hazardous than coal mining. Likewise, the comment on the 1936-37 wave of sit-down strikes indicates that this technique, previously used only in European countries (France, Poland, and Wales), was considered by many labor leaders as a threat to responsible unionism. The information on all such items necessarily is too sketchy for this volume to qualify as a reference book, but this deficiency is partly overcome by references and supplementary facts given in excellent footnotes, a number of which cite original and secondary sources of information on the important items. These footnotes are particularly useful since they are covered by the very complete index. Even the sketchy information given, however, is an excellent antidote for those whose limited information permits them to be influenced to think of all unions as rackets with irresponsible leadership. The broad interests of unions, the benefits derived from membership, and the methods by which the organizations carry on their internal affairs, identify them in general as responsible institutions of real social value.

Not only does the author maintain the genuine objectivity of an understanding student, but she is also thoroughly nonpartisan toward the different branches within the labor movement. For example, her treatment of the diverse political programs of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations is factual and portrays an understanding of the basis for their differences.

When one recalls the results of a *Fortune* poll (reported by Miss Peterson in a footnote) indicating the paucity of information and instruction about labor unions, one cannot but hope that this text will be widely used in elementary social science courses in the many secondary schools and colleges which now graduate students who learn what little they

know of unions from newspaper headlines and columnists emphasizing industrial disputes. It is also useful to labor specialists in some industry or in some particular phase of union activity as a broad reference, and for clues to adequate information about other industries or activities. The volume has an admirable glossary of labor terms which will help the uninitiated to read labor news more understandingly.

E. B. SCHULTZ
Personnel Relations Division
Tennessee Valley Authority

Careers in Personnel Work. D. M. Smythe.
E. P. Dutton & Co. New York, 1946, 253 pp.
\$2.75.

Although the personnel worker will find little new in this book, he will surely find it unique as an exposition of the opportunities available in the personnel field. Published in E. P. Dutton's long series of "career books," it was written in collaboration with Vocational Guidance Research, of which Evelyn Steele is the Director. It is intended for the guidance of the job-seeking reader, particularly the one who is deciding initially on a career. It is not intended as a reference book for the personnel worker who is shopping around for a more glamorous job, and furthermore this reviewer knows of no such reference book.

Mr. Smythe first attempts to explain to the uninitiate the scope of personnel work, particularly as it is found in private industry. Although much of the illustrative material seems too limited to the Radio Corporation of America's practices, the author does review such activities as interviewing and counseling, aptitude and psychological testing, orientation, training programs, research, discipline and employee services. Qualifications needed for success in the field are next discussed. The author concludes that a college education is essential to success, illustrating this with success stories of persons who do not possess that priceless ingredient. Regardless of college training, however, the author urges prospective personnel workers to begin at the workbench—to gain experience in the production line before striking out for the personnel office. This theory is advanced as a deduction from the many success stories of people now in responsible personnel positions, all of whom endorse their own particular sequence of experiences. Younger fry in the field who trained for personnel work and went directly into it might challenge the theory, but their voices

probably will not be heard until time has drawn them into positions of authority and veneration.

Here, for instance, is a typical case history of a successful personnel man: Mr. — has been a lumberjack, saw-filer, laborer, book-keeper, lawyer, musician and actor. He has appeared on the radio networks, has done motion picture work, and spent three years on the Keith Vaudeville Circuit. His experience includes being master of ceremonies for one of Major Bowes' units, and for Lum and Abner in their personal appearances. He has performed in and managed productions in England as well as in America. So wide an experience meant dealing with many kinds of people. Consequently, when Mr. — entered the personnel field its techniques were not new to him.

Thus the best training for personnel work is no training at all. Everybody, as a well-known comedian says, wants to get in the act. And apparently anybody can, provided he has not miraculously avoided all contact with people. The fact is that among established personnel people in the industrial world there is no clear pattern of training and experience. The personnel worker who considers himself professional may find this disturbing, but he must admit that it is encouraging to someone on the outside.

Discussions of public personnel administration, guidance, white-collar personnel work, industrial practices and opportunities, labor relations and personnel jobs for women complete the presentation. Out of this information comes an encouraging picture for the would-be personnel worker, and some advice: industries will have higher standards of hiring employees than those existing during the war years. The personnel worker with his eye on the future should thoroughly study interviewing techniques in order to enforce these standards. Testing methods for hiring and placement will be used almost universally. Counseling should be stressed in personnel work preparation, as it now occupies a permanent place in personnel procedures. Finally, a prospective personnel worker should specialize in one aspect of the field. Be an authority on some one phase of personnel work.

Concluding the book is a statement by Lawrence A. Appley, Vice President of Vick Chemical Company, in which he discusses industrial relations from the long-range viewpoint. This mature appraisal, in contrast to the irrepressible Reader's Digest type of op-

timism in the book's first sixteen chapters, repeats Mr. Appley's familiar but unheeded insistence on the human factor in personnel management. Mr. Smythe's collection of success stories may thrill the young man or woman who is looking for a career in personnel work. Of interest to the personnel worker who appreciates the subtleties of the field is the inevitable conclusion that most of the success story heroes have little conception of Mr. Appley's principles.

CHARLES H. BENTLEY

Federal Public Housing Authority

Salary and Wage Administration. Ralph W. Ells. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York, 1945. 120 pp. \$1.50.

Mr. Ells has attempted to condense into one hundred odd pages a philosophy of and a program for industrial salary and wage administration. For several reasons he has failed to produce a worthwhile document.

On the substantive side, the book fails because its author reveals an inadequate understanding of the complexities of occupational structures, of employee motivation and sophistication in pay matters, and, generally, of the factors which go to make up sound pay policies. Several of the ideas presented are quite sound; these, however, constitute relatively standard practice in the field. The material which displays any originality is, in most cases, of little, if any, usefulness.

Quite as unsatisfactory as the inadequate but no less positive treatment of pay policies and administration, is the obscure and contradictory manner in which the material is presented. Long paragraphs appear in the text which, on analysis, appear to be without meaning. Tables which are declared to illustrate principles are impossible to understand. A variety of "first principles" is offered. Procedures are frankly offered as "subterfuges"—in itself demonstrating something less than a commendable attitude toward administrative problems—which should not deceive a ten-year-old.

As early as the introduction to the volume, the author does a good job of hiding his meaning and confusing the reader. Consider the following:

Although the establishment of internally consistent pay roll policies is closely related to the administration of wages, it is a subject that can be treated separately. It is, therefore, outside the scope of this book. The subject has been mentioned here primarily to prove that it is unrelated and to isolate the main problem, which is to outline a sound program for administering and controlling salaries and wages.

Without regard to the nature of "pay-roll policies," which, incidentally, is not clear from the text, proving things "unrelated" which have just been declared to be "closely related," by mentioning them is likely to be quite a task. This is but one example of what must be the result of muddled thinking or incredibly poor expression, or, more likely, some combination of the two. In successive paragraphs the author declares "It would be almost an impossibility to find a company not using them [salary ranges]" and "It is a strange phenomenon, but companies that pay fixed rates for classifications for which other companies have salaries or wage ranges are sometimes more successful than companies with these ranges." This set of statements illustrates Mr. Ells' habits of over-generalization and of frequently disregarding what he has just finished saying. Without belaboring the point, another quotation may be useful in demonstrating Mr. Ells' difficulty in avoiding explanations which not only do not explain but which are unrelated to his premise:

Also, under this method men and women must automatically be placed on the same job level since a point system rates the position and not the individual. This does not mean necessarily that men and women doing the same type of work will receive the same salary, because

1. If the men do work other than that done by women, such as handling heavy materials, there is a difference in job content. If it is a ratable difference, a separate job with a different normal should be established for the men.

2. If the men, or the women, assume more responsibility and do better work, they should be rewarded. This, however, is a difference in job performance and should not affect the salary range or salary normal.

It seems likely that Companies A, B, X, and Y which, throughout the book, are cited as having adopted the pay policies advocated by Mr. Ells with uniform success and to the complete satisfaction of both worker and management, must have operated only under war conditions. In a war environment of large profits, government-enforced wage stabilization, and worker scarcity, any system of pay administration which gave a semblance of order and reason might pass for good practice. In the absence of such an artificial situation, both the employees and the stockholders of Companies A, B, X, and Y might, with considerable justification, demand a change in company management which would follow the pay program outlined in the book.

Despite the general inapplicability of the pay program presented by Mr. Ells, he repeats some points which are of importance. Al-

though he overemphasizes it, the internal consistency of any pay scheme should be a primary consideration. Organizations following his invitation to disregard competitive rates completely would, of course, get into serious difficulties. This is hardly worse, however, than the common practice of gathering sketchy pay statistics from a variety of organizations which have never satisfactorily solved their own pay problems and through "statistical analysis" of the data (ordinarily the determination of some simple average of pay rates for groups of positions with similar titles), arriving at valid wage rates. The information thus obtained, in turn, is utilized by future investigators as the basis for still further refined rates.

Mr. Ells is quite right in his advocacy of job analysis—position classification—as a prerequisite to pay rate establishment. Unfortunately, the plan of job classification and evaluation he offers is almost completely inadequate. This is demonstrated by such statements as:

To establish job classifications for salaried employees in any company that has never used job classifications before is a simple matter. After all, in most companies there are really only five types of salaried employees to be classified:

1. Clerks.
2. Stenographers.
3. Supervisors of hourly workers.
4. Professional and administrative specialists and supervisors.
5. Miscellaneous employees, such as messengers and porters.

Since the earnings of supervisors of hourly workers must be related to the earnings of the hourly workers under their jurisdiction, by the same line of reasoning a formal job evaluation is often unnecessary for supervisory personnel.

In most companies, the number of hourly and salaried job classifications combined should never exceed 100. If a company has more than 100, salary and wage administration cannot help being a constant problem.

It seems plain that the book under discussion contains little of value to the industrial personnel manager, and even less for the public administrator in this field. As a member of this latter group, the reviewer has salvaged from his examination of this volume some satisfaction in observing that if it describes industrial practice which is at all typical, government generally does most of the things involved in pay administration much, much more effectively.

ROBERT I. BIREN
Office of Industrial Relations
Navy Department

A Program for Personnel Administration. J. J. Evans, Jr. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York, 1945. 100 pp. \$1.50.

It is regrettable that the author of this book apparently felt impelled to go to great lengths in the use of homely language to implement his stated objective of avoiding an "academic, textbook type of presentation." Many readers will undoubtedly arch their eyebrows at the author's use of such terms as "Old Faithful," "Single Tracker," "Keeping Up with the Joneses," and "Termite" to designate some of the more common types of personnel concepts. Similarly, the allegories employed by the author to explain various points may not be felt to be flattering to the intelligence of the reader. However, the author's style undoubtedly represents the extreme but understandable reaction of a plain-spoken individual towards the tendency of some personnel technicians to buttress their professional status through the use of unnecessarily complex terminology and abstruse concepts. The style should not be permitted to obscure the fact that the book affords a succinct, readily understandable description of the several components of personnel administration and the prerequisites of a successful personnel program. In this connection it is noteworthy that the author effectively deflates high-sounding personnel activities that represent misdirected energies rather than any real substance.

Whatever one's opinion may be of the author's method of presentation, there is no gainsaying the fact that this compact volume can be invaluable in selling sound and well-rounded personnel programs to management and in conveying a better general understanding of the content of such programs and of the methods that should be employed in their administration. The personnel technician as well as the lay reader should find the author's discussion of the scope of activities, organization, and operating relationships of a personnel unit very provocative. The author's division of personnel administration into personnel relations, contractual labor relations, and public relations is of particular interest, not only in view of the inclusion of the third item within the scope of personnel, but also because of the distinctions that are drawn between what the author considers normal personnel relations and those predicated upon collective bargaining.

The discussion of the characteristics of a personnel man should also be of interest, especially since the author first approaches the

subject from the standpoint of what he considers to be undesirable traits in a personnel man. In dealing with this phase of the subject, the author does not advocate any particular type of formal training, but states that "the one best criterion in the selection of a personnel man is to find one to whose judgment you would submit readily and with confidence matters affecting your own actions and future." Finally, by indicating what steps he would take with respect to personnel administration if he were president of a company, the author is able to convey effectively the relationships that should exist between top management and the personnel director of an organization.

Although the reviewer found himself taking exception to many of Mr. Evans' statements, he also found that the book's distinctly different approach to the subject had the salutary effect of being far more stimulating than the usual book on this subject in causing one to rethink or reappraise various concepts of personnel administration in a more critical and realistic manner.

JOSEPH POIS
J. L. Jacobs Co.,
Chicago, Illinois

Supervising People. George D. Halsey.
Harper & Brothers. New York, 1946. 233
pp. \$3.00.

In twenty-four chapters of uneven length and significance, Mr. Halsey uses examples from his long personnel executive experience to tell supervisors how to supervise people. Supervisors, it appears, are "foremen in shops and mills, section heads in offices, assistant buyers and floor managers in retail stores."

The book opens with a discussion on "What is Supervision?" By a conference-like procedure, a concise working definition emerges. To quell skeptics who still believe that supervisors are "born, not made," the author quotes a saying, "Nine-tenths of genius is sweat." Throughout the book, rules for successful supervisory accomplishment appear in neatly packaged form. To be a success (undefined) it is necessary to develop six (sic) qualities, viz: "Thoroughness, fairness, initiative, tact, enthusiasm and emotional control." Each of these qualities is discussed and buttressed with anecdotal sermonettes.

The basic psychological and psychiatric findings which are fundamental to explaining human behavior receive brief treatment in Chapter III, which the author suggests as required reading for all study groups using his

book as a text. The chapter following gives Dale Carnegie-like advice on how the aspiring supervisor can get his subordinates to like as well as to respect him.

Mr. Halsey implies that even in companies with personnel departments, the first-line supervisor plays an important role in selecting employees. To prime the anxious-to-improve supervisor for this duty, he discusses in separate chapters, "Preparing the Job Specification," the use of tests, and "Some Suggestions on Interviewing Applicants." Then the mysteries and techniques of job evaluation are expounded, followed by two chapters on "Getting The New Employee Off to a Good Start" and "The Supervisor as a Teacher." With five years of hammering on this theme by T. W. L., such advice seems superfluous. Nevertheless, the author also explains "How to Hold a Good Meeting."

Material on rating employee performance is summarized from another book by the author. Since appraising performance usually calls for correcting worker faults, "Ten Commandments of Correction" are listed—the goal being, "correcting without offending."

Even the good supervisor has problem cases; hence a quick treatment on the art and technique of personality adjustment. The gist of how to improve the personality of subordinates emerges in five (sic) simple rules. "Problem cases" are undoubtedly the only employees who have complaints or cause grievances, inasmuch as the latter part of this chapter lists the steps to follow in such matters. It ends with a statement of the "Personnel Policy of the Blank Company" neatly displayed in fifteen short paragraphs.

Approximately three pages (a chapter) are used to explain "How to Handle Dismissals." By some brand of logic this advice leads to a two-page chapter on "Developing an Assistant," followed quite illogically (?) by a discussion on the supervision of women.

The author recognizes that the basic practices of good supervision should be the same for males and females. He says, "Someone has said that exactly the same rules apply in the supervision of women as in the supervision of men—only more so! It seems there are complaints about women as supervisors! By following advice given, the woman supervisor can be "successful," even where the rank-and-file females think "Working for a woman is not exciting enough."

Women in industry brought to mind employee counselors; hence a short discussion of

their functions, even though they relieve the supervisor of direct handling of "problem cases."

The essentials of work simplification immediately follow the concise and excellent discussion of counseling. Certainly work methods analysis is a function of the supervisor. The author's condensation is well done. However, setting up wage incentive systems is not normally a function of the first-line supervisor, but he needs information about such plans. One wonders why this subject wasn't more closely linked with job evaluation and salary administration. So, too, one questions why this subject is followed by "The Supervisor's Part in the Prevention of Accidents."

Similarly, a short chapter on "Morale" is added, seemingly as an afterthought, followed by a seven-point "Code of Ethics For Foremen" of the National Association of Foremen.

How can those foremen who are joining foremen's unions help create a high degree of morale? Item six in the code implies that supervisors are not "working people."

The final chapter begins, "This is the most important chapter in the book." Actually, it offers a check list to be used by the reader to rank himself in the six previously listed qualities important to success.

The author has been specific in his "how to" advice. Inexperienced supervisors get sound advice keyed to everyday needs. The annotated references for supplementary reading and the library on supervision suggested in the Appendix are well selected. One wonders, nevertheless, whether all the advice cannot be found in one basic rule—the Golden Rule?

ALBERT T. HELBING
Los Angeles Department
of Water and Power

Personnel Administration—General

Bowers, Glenn A. **Personnel management in transition.** *Modern Management* 5 (6) November, 1945: 10-11, 26-27.—The concepts of industrial personnel management originated in scientific management's emphasis on specialization, job standards, and worker incentives. Functional organization brought into existence the personnel department, which has developed a general pattern of operations, including employment, training, safety, employment insurance, wage and salary administration, collective agreements, and employee services. In the postwar transitional period several changes in these operations will take place. Many persons on personnel staffs, including welfare workers, will make way for those with managerial ability; the staff character of personnel work will continue, with influence based on skill in handling problems rather than formal authority; statistical analysis of employment data will continue; direct recruiting will be resumed, but the good wartime record of public employment offices will result in their continued use; practical performance tests, rather than aptitude or other refined tests, will be emphasized in selection; health and safety programs will be continued and may be expanded; the values of the "J" series in training supervisors will not be lost, but emphasis on supervisory conferences to develop judgment and leadership may be expected; there will be increased application of job analysis, description, and evaluation in wage administration; and, except where collective bargaining is conducted on an industry-wide basis, the personnel managers will tend to conduct negotiations and other relations with organized labor. The period of violent hostility between labor and management is largely over, and a working relationship, based on common interests, is being developed.—*Karl A. Bosworth.*

White, Leonard D. **Legislative responsibility for the public service.** *State Government* 18 (11) November, 1945: 195-99, 203.—The next major development in the improvement of public administration depends on reform of American legislatures. This involves a revolution in the lawmakers' conception of their duty to administration—a change in viewpoint from that of a watchful and suspicious master

of a prodigal and wasteful servant, to recognition that the administrative system is a partner in the business of governing. The staggering problems of reconversion and the maintenance of an economy of substantially full employment must rely primarily on the professional and technical capacity of the public service, free from legislative hamstringing but democratically controlled. The details of the business of government have escaped the competence of legislative committees and chairmen. In the future, legislatures perforce must deal with administration on the basis of principle and generality if they are to deal with it effectively and in the public interest. Their first task is the formulation of public policy and legislating the foundations for effective administration of that policy. With legislatures whose membership is constantly changing, and whose leadership shifts from one party to another, there is need for a standard by which specific proposals can be measured if intelligent and consistent action on administrative matters is to be had. In order to put into effect the standards they wish to impose upon the executive branch, the legislature needs to establish a reviewing committee whose task it is to review all prospective legislation bearing on administration, and insure as far as possible that it embodies good administrative provisions. An alternative form of organization to improve administrative legislation would be the creation of three over-all committees on budget, personnel, and planning. The legislative body is not well equipped to supervise the details of government. Consequently, to be effective it must organize the administrative system so that by giving attention to a limited number of key points it can reach the whole system. Legislatures may also become more effective organs of control by requiring administrative agencies to maintain an operations audit which ascertains what has been accomplished with the appropriation—a refinement of the legislative tour of inspection. Legislatures should recognize that management needs freedom, can be trusted, and must be held accountable for results. The statute books can be usefully purged of a heavy accumulation of negative restrictions and limitations. In our times the legislature must be prepared to vest power in administrative officers, but it needs also to be

eternally vigilant concerning the use of power.
—Adrian E. Gory.

Personnel Research—General

Unsigned. **Personnel research at Ohio State**, *Personnel Journal* 24 (5) November, 1945: 197-200.—The Ohio State University recently established a program of research, service, and instruction in the field of personnel relations in business, industry, government, and education. The program of personnel relations has as its foundation a continuous plan of immediate as well as long range research. Some of the projects are already under way and others will be started later when funds are available. The program includes a cooperative arrangement by which small businesses will obtain information and services, a study of worker attitudes and a study of selected organization structures with the view to determining which types of executive methods are best suited to various types of organizational patterns. Other projects are a study of absenteeism, the measurement and identification of executive and supervisory talent, a study of job potentialities in Ohio, the preparation of a guide for job analysis and job specifications for the retail, wholesale and other branches of the distributive field, and a study of incentives and their relationship to wage problems. The University will undertake studies on sales engineering and criteria for the selection of candidates for admission to study engineering. A study is also being undertaken to discover what engineers do for a living at various periods after graduation from college. A study of jobs is under way in an effort to employ handicapped workers. The University has begun a nationwide study of tool engineers, an evaluation of interviewing and counseling and a study of supply and demand of personnel workers.—William C. Rogers.

Classification; Pay

Baruch, Ismar. **Federal night pay policies**, *Personnel Administration* 9 (5) January, 1946: 7-11.—Ordinarily a night pay differential is a premium rate payable to an employee who is assigned to work on an established shift or tour of duty which, without overtime, regularly includes night hours. The purpose of a night differential is to compensate employees for the inconvenience, extra expense, and reversal of their normal living habits compelled by night work. In the federal service, several statutes expressly provide for night pay differentials. Basic aspects of night pay differ-

ential policy are: (a) amount of differential rate, (b) identification of the clock-hours or the shifts carrying differential rates, (c) treatment of shifts composed partly of day hours and partly of night hours, (d) treatment of irregular or occasional night work, (e) effect upon the night differential of authorized leave of absence with pay, (f) relation between night differential and overtime pay. Night differential rates in the federal service are not uniform between employees paid statutory per annum salaries and employees paid hourly or daily rates under wage-board schedules. The general differential rate for salaried workers, including those in the postal service, is 10 per cent. Among the wage-board crafts and trades, the differential varies. There are still variations among different segments of the service with respect to all of the basic aspects of night pay differential policy. As long as pay policies for white-collar groups are governed legislatively and those for blue-collar groups are controlled administratively by reference to local industrial practice, such differences are natural and will continue. It can be argued with considerable administrative sense that they are but the reflection of distinctions in working conditions that must be recognized between government agencies or groups, or between industry and government, or between different industries. Most federal employees find it difficult to understand why the government has different policies for different agencies or groups. At an appropriate time, accordingly, attention may well be given to lessening the present variations in federal night pay differential policy and administration.—J. Emmett Frost.

Chester, Arthur V. **What price the civil servant?** *Western City* 22 (1) January, 1946: 21-22.—According to a pre-war survey, the average American's job ranks number one in his interest. Civil service employees are no exception. They particularly resent inequalities of pay though as a group they are not unreasonable in their demands. The intelligently planned program of job analysis, description and evaluation should lessen discontent among civic workers. Job evaluation is recent, the ranking method being the first true scientific method. In order to evaluate different jobs more effectively, industrial engineers have identified and classified job factors. Usually the factors number from 10 to 14. Some analysts considered their factors to be of equal value but, today, the weighted factor scale is much preferred. Many industrial engineers

have admitted that all jobs cannot be judged by a standard table of factors and have presented different rating charts for shop, office, executive and technical departments. It is suggested that instead of giving points to the job factor of "job training time," the points should be deducted rather than added to the total score since the employer pays for job training. It is further suggested that the language used in the job evaluation forms be phrased so that the lowest employee in the organization can understand it. If a city executive will plan his program and will test the rating scale which he plans to use, he will assure a program which will satisfy both employer and employee.—*F. R. Coop.*

Corson, John J. **The high cost of lost executives.** *Personnel Administration* 8 (4) December, 1945: 1-5.—At last the problem of retaining federal employees of ability and initiative in jobs paying from \$5,000 to \$9,000 has been forced to the surface. Among the annual crop of resigning civil servants there are always a number of highly competent scientific, professional and administrative personnel. The emigres who constitute a loss are the career men who have served from 7 to 20 years. Many intended to devote their lives to the public service. But after having attained positions of major importance they have left to enter private employment. The cost of this continuing loss of top-flight personnel is less efficient and more expensive management of the public business. The federal government cannot retain able men in the tough and important jobs with present salaries. Simple economy demands that those federal salaries which now range from \$5,000 to \$10,000 be raised to not less than \$15,000. No less would have retained the bulk of those who have left in the past decade. The levels of compensation of executives in industry will not likely be equalled in the federal service. Yet they must be more nearly approached if the federal government is to retain its top-flight personnel. Hence, the Congress may well create a commission composed of leaders in private business to consider the compensation suitable for professional, scientific, and administrative positions in the federal service. Let that commission retain experts in the field of executive compensation to analyze the nature of these jobs and to indicate the compensation of similar jobs in private enterprise. Then let the commission recommend a philosophy to govern the compensation of public servants as well as the general level of executive salaries that should pre-

vail. Such a commission could translate the axiom that governs the compensation of private executives—"You only get what you pay for"—into a philosophy of executive compensation for the public business.—*Michael Levine.*

Friedman, Morton. **Institutional employee maintenance policies in the state.** *State Government* 19 (1) January, 1946: 6-8.—A segment of personnel management to which attention is not often given is that of institutional employee maintenance. Since it affects some half million persons it is an issue of considerable magnitude, and is a factor affecting recruitment, job satisfaction, and consequent retention of personnel. Although there is a growing awareness of the need for formulating a sound maintenance policy, in general the handling of this matter has followed traditional lines with little attempt to formulate a rationale for the maintenance structure. The traditional pattern was, and in many instances continues to be, salary plus maintenance. There is a discernible trend away from this practice, with a tendency to place all positions on a gross salary basis. This is the most realistic approach since, regardless of the cost or value to the institution of providing the maintenance, the value to the employee is tangible and undeniable. Although there are within institutions variances in the type, quality, or amount of maintenance items furnished, there are not proportionate variances in maintenance charges. A few states have placed logical, ordered schedules of charges into effect, but the majority do not differentiate much, if any, in their charges. An analysis of maintenance policies and practices of state institutions makes it possible to formulate a general set of guides or fundamentals for a sound policy. They are: (1) maintenance charges must be set on a graduated itemized scale; (2) there can be no exclusive determinant in setting the maintenance charges; (3) maintenance charges should vary in accordance with the type, size, quality, and amount of accommodations and facilities furnished; (4) maintenance charges should be based on the accommodations furnished, and not according to position status or salary of the person receiving maintenance; (5) employees should be paid on the basis of cash salary in full for their service, with payroll deductions or cash remittances made by them for all maintenance perquisites received; (6) while specific institutional needs may call for a nucleus of employees to reside on the grounds, this number should be held to a minimum; (7) such services

as medical and hospital care, housekeeping aid, and the like, which are frequently lumped or "covered in" under general maintenance charges, should be regarded as individual maintenance elements and charged for separately; and (8) maintenance charges must be open to revision whenever there are significant changes in costs which would affect the "market value" of maintenance items.—C. J. Wasung.

Tilove, Robert. **Functions and limitations of job evaluation.** *Personnel* 22 (4) January, 1946: 206-214.—That job evaluation has a function to perform was pointed up by wartime pressures for the correction of "gross intra-plant inequities." The necessity was demonstrated for an objective frame of reference, an understanding on basic policy and method, which would serve both to narrow the area of disagreement and to reduce the problem of over-all review to manageable proportions. The principal usefulness of a job evaluation system, embracing the essential characteristics of factor comparison and point evaluation, is to minimize the illegitimate elements which affect the determination of intra-plant or intra-company wage-rate relationships. The usefulness of a job evaluation system is surrounded by limitations which fall into two categories: (1) factors other than job content, and (2) limitations on the scoring of job content. The first includes irregularity of employment; career prospects of jobs; market supply of, and demand for, specific occupations; and tradition itself as exemplified by well-known, long-established wage rates not amenable to revision without fairly profound dislocations. The second category involves those elements of judgment inherent in defining and weighting mathematically degrees of job-content factors actually not measurable in precise terms. Consequently, the evaluator must work out rate relationships that will satisfy those concerned that they are fair, as well as produce a wage structure that will assure proper distribution of manpower. Satisfying these two requirements for a workable evaluation plan does not make it permanently valid. Periodic redetermination of the varying effects of the broad factors of supply and demand on the job-evaluating elements is essential, as well as the realization that any system is subject to the ultimate review of common sense exercised by persons of judgment.—William B. Davis.

Testing

Adkins, Dorothy C. **Construction and analysis of written tests for predicting job per-**

formance. *The Compass* 27 (2) January, 1946: 24-30.—For the present, the use of a competitive written test is limited to appraising pertinent knowledges, skills, and abilities that are distinct from personality factors. Construction of a written test requires defining what is to be tested and discovering those areas in which individual differences should be reflected in test scores. A test item, whether free-answer or objective type, should present a definite and clear task. It should elicit responses of such a nature as to permit the inference that persons who respond in one way will differ from those who respond in other ways. Objective-type items can more readily be made objective and reliable, permit a much broader sampling of the subject matter or abilities being tested, and need not be limited to the testing of factual knowledge. The average difficulty of the items in a test should correspond to the average ability of the subjects. The reliability of a test refers to the extent to which chance factors affect test results. Although many of the factors that influence reliability are now known, an experimental administration of the test followed by an analysis of the results is needed to achieve maximum reliability. A test must be valid for the purpose for which it is to be used. By the use of employee service ratings that have no purpose other than to serve as a criterion for test analysis, many pitfalls of service ratings can be avoided. Statistical techniques, which are approximations to correlation coefficients determine the relationship of each item to the criterion. Using an internal criterion, the total score on the test itself, determines which items tend to measure whatever the test as a whole measures, and is not a method of validating a test.—Dorothy M. Wilson.

Toolan, William Thomas. **Merit examination cut-offs and weights.** *Journal of Applied Psychology* 29 (6) December, 1945: 493-97.—A "cut-off" is a point in a distribution of test scores below which the scores are regarded as not acceptable or below a pre-determined standard. For the sake of improving public relations, considerably more care should be given to setting passing points. Screening applicants through each part of an examination aims to eliminate unfit candidates but it is conceivable that a group of competitors may all be qualified to pass the component parts. Before making a cut-off, a preliminary inspection should be made of the scores and papers clustered about the contemplated passing point. This analysis should reveal the accept-

able level of qualifications if the examiner has a sound working knowledge of, and familiarity with, the work requirements as established by class specification and job audit. This analytical procedure should be repeated several times and then the cut-off point set at the level of qualifications where it is fairly certain that no great injustice is being done nor any obviously unfit paper included. The weighting of the parts of an examination should rarely be done in advance. A written test may turn out to be too difficult or too easy; the raters in the oral board may rate without discrimination between traits; a performance test may be found to be almost non-effective for establishing a normal range of individual differences; the distribution of experience and training evaluations may be more revealing of selective effectiveness than any or all other parts combined. The criterion in all considerations of selective effectiveness of a part and the weight to assign it is how the part actually performs. And when a part has proven itself worthy of the heaviest weight in an examination and such a weight has been assigned, it becomes the controlling factor of the relative placement of persons in the final distribution on the eligible list. The setting of the weights on each or all parts of the examination does not preclude the setting of cut-offs when the parts are administered or collectively considered.—*Leo B. Fagan.*

Training

Connor, Franklin G. and Landis, Russell H. **The federal administrative intern program.** *Personnel Administration* 8 (4) December, 1945: 11-14.—Prompted by the success of the National Institute of Public Affairs internships, an inter-departmental committee of the Council of Personnel Administration sponsored a similar program through the United States Civil Service Commission. Thirty interns were carefully selected from among 112 nominees from 14 agencies on the basis of evaluations of progressiveness of work experience and leadership, American Council on Education test results, and personal interviews. The program began with a two-week orientation period to provide a frame of reference on the executive branch of the federal government. Three-hour morning sessions were conducted by training advisors or administrative leaders. Afternoons were spent in learning agency functions through visits. Single-course evening scholarships at American University were used by the internees. They also at-

tended weekly evening seminars. Each was given a 22-week assignment in his own or another agency where his intern-training was centered around his main field of interest, but not aimed at providing intensified specific training. While reports on utilization of this training by employing agencies are not yet complete, over half of the interns have been advanced in grade by their agencies and only one-fourth returned to their former positions.—*Mildred Stier.*

Service Ratings

Smith, Martha Strong. **An approach toward objectivity in evaluating social work performance.** *The Compass* 27 (3) March, 1946: 33-37.—Social workers have long been actively concerned with the evaluation of employee performance. They have always sought to weigh the duties of each position and have attempted to maintain standards, with the result that the vast majority of workers who have been evaluated have felt that an honest job has been done. There are, however, several problems involved in the evaluation process which need clarification. Supervisory judgment at its best contains a large element of subjectivity, making necessary a scientific, analytic approach. Participation of the worker in the rating process may obscure the supervisory judgment. Properly used, however, reviews by the employee and next higher line official may increase the comparability of ratings. Only those aspects of personality should be rated that may be observed in direct relation to performance on the job during the period covered by the rating. Position classification information and written standards for each duty performed on individual jobs are necessary for the construction of the rating scale. The instrument used should cover the significant areas of performance. Precautions should be taken to make sure that the words used mean approximately the same thing to all raters, that the examples of performance used are proper to the aspects being covered, and that each item is suitably related to the duties and the standards. Necessity demands that social workers discover and utilize available devices for facilitating objectivity in attacking the problems in evaluation of personnel.—*Barbara L. Brattin.*

Employee Relations

Harris, Herbert. **Collective bargaining in the local public service.** *American City* 61 (1) January, 1946: 89-90, 127.—The origins of

collective bargaining in government are rooted in the same motivations that foster collective bargaining in private enterprise. There is, however, one respect in which collective bargaining in government differs drastically from that in industry, namely, the use of the strike to enforce demands. All government unions, some of which accepted the strike in their earlier days, now officially eschew it. This emphasis upon no work stoppage mirrors community opinion against government strikes far more than it mirrors any clear-cut concepts as to what organizations of public employees may or may not do. Actually in the public service a hybrid form of collective bargaining has grown up. Instead of the economic pressure of the lockout, public management draws on the real or implied powers of the state to curtail collective bargaining or to keep it within previously accepted bounds. Instead of the economic pressures of the strike, the unions exert publicity, political, and psychological pressures. A legitimate criticism of government collective bargaining is that, in its present stage of development, it has hardly begun to exploit the potentialities of mediation and arbitration, either voluntary or compulsory. Yet in anything that so directly involves the public interest, the intervention of a neutral third party would seem particularly apt. The lack of clear-cut official procedures of conciliation remains a primary reason why collective bargaining in government often seems so confused. It remains a fiercely contested point as to whether or not a city has the right to bargain collectively with its employees and to sign contracts that stipulate wages, hours, the union shop, and the like. The Institute of Municipal Law Officers has not retreated from the stand it took in 1941 that a municipality may not enter into a labor contract in the absence of express enabling legislation endowing it with the authority to do so. Those who oppose this view answer that cities conduct their business constantly under the doctrine of implied powers. The continuing development of collective bargaining in local and other governmental fields in the face of such legalistic obstacles testifies to its inherent vitality.—*H. Richard Rice.*

Phelps, Orme W. **Organizations of employees, with especial reference to library personnel.** *The Library Quarterly* 16 (1) January, 1946: 20-34.—The library profession would benefit by the establishment of a national association of library personnel authorized to speak for the profession as a whole.

The problem to be solved is what type of organization would be most effective. There are two chief types of organization: formal and informal. Formal organization contributes to the success of informal organization and the latter is a principal ingredient of morale. There are many kinds of formal organization all having similar characteristics: the extension of the principle of popular sovereignty within functional groups, the opening of new channels of communication to management, and the introduction of the idea of self-help through organization. Differences in formal organizations are due to peculiarities in background, purpose and method of occupational groups. Advantages of formal organizations outweigh their disadvantages for librarians. The current practical choice of organization for library employees would be either a trade union or local staff association. However, there is some doubt that trade unionism is appropriate for the library profession. On the other hand, staff associations are weak because of their independence. The all-important recommendation for existing staff associations is that they be consolidated into a national professional organization qualified and able to act for all librarians on all matters pertinent to them. It is suggested, in addition, that librarians consider the possibility of affiliation with other groups to overcome their weakness in number. Library administrators should aid their employees in developing suitable formal organizations.—*Nesta M. Gallas.*

Turnover

Taft, Ronald and Mullins, Audrey. **Who quits, and why.** *Personnel Journal* 24 (8) February, 1946: 300-307.—It is by now a well-established fact that labor turnover is an expensive proposition, and, at the same time, an expense which can be reduced. There are several spheres in which improvements may be brought about: the rate of turnover may be reduced by employing groups having the lowest turnover, by promoting employees who tend to be permanent, and by seeking to eliminate the main causes of turnover. Such personal characteristics as sex, age, marital status, intelligence, and degree of responsibility have been studied in their relationship to turnover on the basis of an analysis of figures for an Australian factory manufacturing munitions. Employees studied held salaried administrative positions, aptitude tests were used in the selection process, and male and female em-

ployees appeared in approximately equal proportion. At the time the study was made, no employee in such a plant in Australia could leave without permission of the Manpower Directorate. The first part of the study is concerned with the personal characteristics of persons having a high turnover rate. The influence of age on the turnover rate of men is one of progressive decrease; the situation is reversed with women. A similar pattern is true in relation to marital status. Combining the two influences, a distinct tendency for a high turnover rate is found for young single men, and a very high rate for married women between 18 and 35. Employees of poor intelligence have an outstandingly low turnover rate; however, young males of superior intelligence also have a low rate, and the rate increases as the intelligence level declines within the group. The age of female employees, in relation to intelligence level and turnover rate, has little effect except at the extremes; the rate for superior older women is high, and for dull older women is low. An analysis of the influence of responsibility leads to the conclusion that for less responsible positions, it is better to employ older persons, and when selecting persons for executive training, young

men are to be preferred to young women. A second part of the study is concerned with an analysis of the main causes of termination: dissatisfaction, health, personal reasons, military, dismissal, and lay-off. Recommendations ensuing from these studies indicate that the employment policy should be framed to avoid the necessity of employing groups having a high turnover rate: young men (under 26) of an intelligence group close to average who are not capable of filling responsible positions, married women between 18 and 36 years and single women over 36. Assuming that other things are equal, single women under 36 are to be preferred for the less responsible positions; for routine work requiring low intelligence, married women over 36 are best; for responsible positions, married men over 26 and all men over 36 are to be preferred. A program to reduce the effects of turnover must start from the collection and analysis of information relevant to the time and to the individuals involved. Recommendations based on the results of such a study should be incorporated in the employment and supervisory policy of the industry concerned, and should be reviewed at regular intervals.—Joan C. Littlestone.